

THE
MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE
AND
COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

~~~~~  
JULY, 1868.  
~~~~~

ON THE TRADE WITH THE COLORED RACES OF AFRICA.*

I propose to take a general survey of the commerce between the colored or Ethiopic races of Africa and the civilized world; and then briefly to consider the means by which that commerce, hitherto confined to the coast, can be extended to the interior.

The Ethiopic races inhabit that vast country south of the great desert, which may with tolerable accuracy be defined by a line drawn from the River Senegal to Cape Guardafui as its northern boundary; while its southern limit is the Cape Colony. It thus comprises about forty-five degrees of latitude, and is bounded, east and west, by the Indian and Atlantic Oceans; its area being equal to one-fifth or one-sixth part of the habitable globe.

Apart from any question of inherent inferiority of race, it is obvious that the country occupied by the Ethiopians is not calculated to engender civilization. It lies in too compact a mass, unbroken by bays or inlets; nor do the rivers afford either defensive frontiers or the means of commu-

* Read before the Statistical Society of London by Archibald Hamilton, Esq.

nication and transport equal to those which divide and traverse the other divisions of the globe. The great desert cuts it off from the ancient civilization of which the Mediterranean was the centre, while the intercourse subsequently established by the Arabs, is limited and impeded by the same cause. The rivers are all subject to a dry season, which renders them during a part of the year unfit for inland navigation; and they are all more or less interrupted by rapids and cataracts; though it is true equal obstacles have not hindered the St. Lawrence from becoming the great means in the settlement of Canada.

There are two circumstances which give reason to hope, not only that our commerce with the races dwelling on the coast will be rapidly enlarged, but also be extended inwards. I mean the almost total stoppage of the Christian or transatlantic slave trade, and the rapid strides which have of late been made in the exploration of the continent.

In 1854 Livingstone penetrated from the Cape Colony to Loanda, and thence he crossed to Quillimane, tracing the course of the Zambesi on his way. Subsequently he explored Lake Nyanza, and it has recently been a public consolation to learn that he is now on his way home, most likely down the Nile, to complete our knowledge of Lake Tanganyika, first discovered by Burton. Barth has supplemented the labors of Denham and Clapperton in Central Africa, between the Niger and Lake Tchad, the most hopeful and important district of all. Speke and Grant advancing, northwards from Zanzibar, have discovered Lake Victoria Nyanza; while Baker, coming in the opposite direction from Egypt, has terminated the long mystery as to the source of the Nile, having beheld it issuing from the great lake Albert Nyanza. Brilliant as have been the results of these explorations, and others of lesser note, the field of adventure is far from exhausted; much remains for discovery before the map of Africa can be filled up, and the future highways of commerce be traced out. Happily, however, the spirit and enterprise of our countrymen are more likely to be stimulated than diminished by the exploits of the celebrated travelers to whom I have alluded.

There is one subject which occupies a large space in every book of African travel—the slave trade. I do not intend to enter into any details of the horrors attending that traffic; but as human beings have for three centuries been one of the chief exports from Africa, this subject is inseparably mixed up with that of legitimate commerce; because of the anarchy which the slave trade everywhere creates, the ceaseless kidnapping—slave hunts—and wars undertaken expressly to obtain captives, to the destruction of settled industry. It is even the principal cause of the difficulties experienced in exploring the country; and has, moreover, brutalised the natives on the coast far below the condition of the people in the interior

Within the last few years success seems at length to have crowned our efforts to suppress the transatlantic slave trade, but the Mahomedan traffic continues unchecked, or nearly so. Owing to their contraband nature, it is impossible to obtain accurate information of either at any period. The matter was carefully investigated by Sir Fowell Buxton, who estimated the number of slaves exported at 170,000 per annum so recently as 1839-40, on data which has never been impugned. To this must be added a loss of life from the slaughter in wars undertaken for the capture of slaves, and subsequent mortality, so that the figures are thus stated by Buxton :

	Delivered.	Loss of Life.	Total.
Transatlantic slave trade.....	120,000	280,000	400,000
Mahomedan.....	50,000	50,000	100,000
Total.....	170,000	330,000	500,000

It would appear, however, from more recent information, that the loss of life from the Mahomedan trade is considerably understated by Buxton.

Such was the most moderate estimate that could be formed of the transatlantic slave trade in 1840, and there is reason to believe it was stimulated for several years by the alteration of our sugar duties in 1846. The first effectual blow it received was in 1853 and 1854, when Brazil abolished the trade and importations ceased; so that Cuba thenceforward has continued the only importing country. Since 1864 the slave trade has almost ceased, a stray cargo now and then being all that has reached Cuba. The authorities there have of late been in earnest in preventing importations, and it is gratifying to observe that public feeling in Cuba is becoming adverse to their continuance.

I shall now briefly explain the progress which has been made in substituting legitimate commerce for the slave trade along the west coast; and may remark that this has nowhere been accomplished without compulsion of some kind in the first instance; and there is too much reason to fear that, in case of a renewed demand, the trade would once more break out were our vigilance relaxed. No export of slaves has taken place for many years from our settlements on the west coast, viz., the Gambia, Sierra Leone, and Cape Coast Castle; nor from the adjacent territories under the influence of those settlements; nor from the Republic of Liberia, nor the Dutch settlements on the Gold Coast; so that if we except the River Nunez, the coast between the Gambia and Dahomey, say for 1,500 miles, has for many years been free from the slave trade. Relying on this immunity, it was resolved in February, 1864, to withdraw the squadron entirely from this part of the coast; the consequence was, that in Septem-

ber following, a cargo of slaves was shipped from Nunez (situated between the Gambia and Sierra Leone), but with which there has been but little intercourse from either settlement.

It is worthy of note that for many years great pains have been taken by the missionary societies with the education of the liberated Africans at Sierra Leone, and the children born in the colony. During six years ending 1864, between seventy and eighty schools have been maintained at a cost of £5,000 per annum, which have been attended by 57,000 scholars, or an average of 9,500 per annum. An important class of educated blacks has thus grown up, who, together with the Liberian blacks, are actively engaged in trade all down the coast; and ever since the mail steamers were established, in 1852, they have availed themselves freely of the facilities thereby offered, to trade at the various places on the coast at which the steamers call. As many as 150 per month of these native traders pass in the mail steamers between the different stations. Besides Sierra Leone, they are numerous at the Gambia, Cape Coast, Accra and Fernando Po, while they swarm at Lagos. They are everywhere useful as middlemen, and have, in fact, driven all white traders on a small scale out of the field at Sierra Leone; and the more extensive European merchants employ them as agents and clerks in their operations on the neighboring rivers. Of late it has become the ambition of these traders to order goods direct from England, paying for them in produce. I shall presently point out how the educated blacks are capable of playing a most useful part in opening trade with Central Africa.*

Whilst on this subject, I may allude to the progress made by the republic of Liberia, which occupies a coast line of about 600 miles.

The first settlement of emancipated slaves from the United States was in 1820, and in 1847 it was declared a free republic. It now contains about 30,000 civilized inhabitants, about 15,000 of whom, with their descendants, are from America. From 300,000 to 400,000 aborigines reside within the territory of Liberia, and are brought more or less directly under the influence of her institutions. There are about fifty churches in the republic, representing five different denominations. The educated blacks in Liberia and Sierra Leone, are intensely religious, and the various sects, Episcopalians, Wesleyans, Baptists, Independents, &c., are represented among them just as in England and the United States. Differing from Sierra Leone, Liberia has been governed since 1847 by blacks alone. Their constitution resembles that of the United States, and if their proceedings are at times calculated to raise a smile as a parody upon their

* Already, as often as the educated native traders have had opportunities, they have shown great eagerness to carry small adventures up the Niger, and have even endeavored to form among themselves a company, with a capital of £25,000, for steam navigation in that river.

model, it is impossible to deny the good sense, frugality and success which have attended them so far. In 1861 the revenue was \$149,550, against an expenditure of \$142,831. The presidential message for 1866 alludes, with just pride, to the foundation of the Liberian college, and lays down a plan for national education. There can be no doubt that this well ordered and well governed community will play a great part in the civilization of Africa. The present state of matters in America will lead to a considerable accession of strength, 600 emigrants having been despatched in the course of 1866, and 942 in 1867. The American Colonization Society, which founded the settlement in 1820, now regularly employ a vessel in the conveyance of emigrants. The settlers have already been able to repel all attacks from the natives, and, as they gain strength, will become aggressive and extend their influence inwards.

For the year 1864 the imports amounted to \$162,930, the exports to \$172,608.

I come next to the British settlement of Lagos, which was for many years the head-quarters of the slave trade in the Bight of Benin. Situated at the entrance to an extensive lagoon, affording boat navigation eastward as far as the River Benin, and westward to the notorious kingdom of Dahomey, it possessed unequalled facilities for the slave trade, enabling the slavers to dodge our cruisers. In 1851 a treaty was forced on the chiefs and king, and a consulate was established, which continued until 1861; but those measures being inadequate, we took possession of the island of Lagos and of one or two points on the adjacent coast, which, with a couple of gunboats on the lagoons, has answered our purpose effectually.

A considerable trade in palm oil had grown up under the treaty of 1851. Since we took possession the trade has been seriously interrupted by a war between Abeokuto and Ibadan, caused by the latter desiring a direct road to the white man at Lagos, and so avoid paying toll to the Abeokutans. The ground lost will soon however be recovered, and Lagos is rapidly becoming the seat of a flourishing trade.

Stopping the slave trade at Lagos had the effect of directing the current thence to Whydah, a port in Dahomey; but of late, owing to the cessation of the traffic, the king of that country has turned his attention to legitimate commerce. Some small trade had indeed been carried on chiefly by the French, concurrently with the slave traffic; and in 1864 a Liverpool company opened trade at Whydah, the king granting them his baracoon, or slave depot, as a store for goods. Two other English houses have sent agents there, and a healthy trade is rapidly in course of development. I may mention, however, that so recently as May or June, 1867, the king tendered slaves in payment of a debt which he had con-

tracted. I am unable to give the particulars of this trade, which as yet is in its infancy.

I come next to the rivers, Benin, Brass, and Bonny (mouths of the Niger), also Old and New Calabar and Cameroons, generally classed together as "oil rivers." These were at one time the noted haunts of slavers. In the years 1838 to 1840, treaties were forced upon the native kings and chiefs, by which they engaged to discontinue the slave trade. Courts of equity were afterwards established for the regulation of legitimate commerce, consisting of the captains, supercargoes, and agents of English houses, together with the kings and chiefs of the place. They take cognizance of all disputes between the English and the natives. A consul visits the river at intervals, and the system has been found to work successfully, with only an occasional resort to the squadron; in fact, the mere presence of a man-of-war has of late sufficed to restore order. I am enabled to show, from private statistics, the progress of the trade between the oil rivers and Liverpool. The average during the first fourteen years was 17,932 tons; and during the last fourteen years 24,734 tons; but during the first fourteen years the trade was chiefly with Liverpool; Bristol participated, and of late years the Clyde has also shared. It will be observed that there are great fluctuations in the imports, which have been influenced by the prices at home, leading occasionally to suspension of trade when the natives were unwilling to submit to reduced prices; likewise to bad seasons.

The next point on the coast where there is a considerable trade is the Gaboon river, which is under the control of the French Government, and has hitherto been thrown open to all nations. There are five English, two or three French, one German, and two Dutch houses engaged in the trade. The police regulations are good, and traders well protected: until recently the expense was borne by the Imperial Government, but within the last twelve months they have enforced a charge for a trading licence, and it is expected will levy a duty of 4 per cent on imports and exports so as to assist in defraying the expenses of government. At our colonies a revenue is collected by similar import duties. I have been unable to obtain returns of the imports and exports, but these will enter into the general tables of trade with the west coast.

Further south we come to the River Congo, notorious as the last seat of the slave trade on the west coast. Within the last five or six years, as many as twenty-three slavers have been counted at Ponta de Lena at one time. Legitimate trade made no progress, until at last an effectual check was given to the slave traffic by the adoption of a very obvious course—our Government entered into a contract to coal the preventive cruisers on the spot, instead of resorting to Fernando Po or Ascension for a supply, leaving the coast and rivers for the time unguarded.

To prove how effective has been the blockade since this arrangement was adopted, I may state that within the last twelve months 700 slaves were sent down for shipment, and two slavers appeared on the coast to embark them—one was captured and the other left the coast in despair. When my informant left the Congo, the slaves were still on hand, and have doubtless either been set free or put to some useful occupation ere this. Cut off from the slave trade, the natives are now eagerly engaged in raising produce, while the Portuguese slave dealers are rendering good service as middlemen in the up-country trade. One Dutch, one American, three French, and three British houses have established themselves in the Congo, with branches along the neighboring coast as far as the Portuguese settlements at Angola, and an active trade is now carried on in palm oil and kernels, ivory, coffee, india rubber, copper oar, gum copal, and ground nuts. The trade has probably increased tenfold within six years, and the exports for 1867 have been estimated at 250,000*l*.

Besides the points on the west coast to which I have alluded, there is an active trade carried on by the French at their settlements at Senegal and Goree, as well as elsewhere; by the Dutch at their settlements on the Gold Coast; as also by the Hanse Towns and Americans at various points; while the Portuguese settlements of Angola and Benguela are little developed, though there are valuable copper mines within their territory.

As regards the goods shipped to the west coast, I may state that the demand has for the last ten years or so, been constantly for an improved quality. The consumption of British manufactures seems limited only by the possibility of supplying produce or value in exchange; thus at the time when returns were unhappily obtained chiefly in slaves, the exports from the United Kingdom were in—

1805	£1,150,000
1806	1,560,000
1807 (slave trade abolished)	1,030,000
1808	800,000
1811	400,000
1827	155,000

This was the lowest point to which they dwindled. About 1830 the palm oil trade became important, so that the exports of British manufactures rose in—

1830 to.....	£250,000	1850	640,000
1835	300,000	1855	1,100,000
1840	400,000	1860	1,300,000
1845	530,000	1865	1,100,000

As it has been often stated that considerable supplies of cotton may be

derived from Central and Western Africa, I subjoin the qualities imported, viz. :—

	Cwts.		Cwts.
1856	308	1862	3,438
1857	1,026	1863*	—
1858	2,116	1864*	—
1859	1,816	1865	7,126
1860	2,069	1866	9,612
1861	1,339		

It is true the cotton plant is indigenous, and the soil and climate over an enormous district are capable of supplying more than we even now consume; still the needful European superintendence for a large production cannot be supplied. The means of transport for so bulky an article do not exist; neither could the capital required for implements, gins, presses, etc., be prudently invested unless under British rule; so that many years must elapse, in my opinion, and many changes must occur, before we can look for any quantity of African cotton, such as would be sensibly felt in our markets.

As regards the trade with the natives bordering on the Cape and Natal colonies, as well as the Dutch republics beyond the frontiers, it is impossible to arrive at exact data. Speaking generally, we may assume that the greater part of the ivory and ostrich feathers from the colonies is obtained from the natives, or through their agency and assistance, as well as a quantity of hides and skins. Commerce is gradually extending northwards; for example, it is not many years since Livingstone discovered Lake Ngami, and now it is within the ordinary range of the traders in quest of ivory and ostrich feathers. The Caffres and Fingoes settled within the colony are making marked progress; they now participate in the carrying trade of the colony, conveying merchandise in well appointed wagons from the coast to the up-country, and bringing down the returns of produce. Their consumption of European goods is increasing, and they now require these to be of better quality; a remark which applies likewise to the natives beyond the limits of the colony.

As a rough guess merely, I am inclined to set down the trade between the colonists and the natives beyond the borders, as follows :

Ivory, one-half exports from Cape and Natal.....	£20,000
Ostrich feathers, three-fourths ditto.....	47,500
Hides.....	10,000
Cattle, sheep, goats and sundries.....	100,000
Total.....	177,500

The eastern coast of Africa, northward of the colony of Natal, was the

* Importations ceased, owing to Abokutan war above mentioned.

seat of a flourishing commerce of great antiquity, carried on by the Arabs, who occupied the coast nine hundred years ago, and founded numerous cities as far south as Sofala; some of which remain to this day, while the ruins of others have lately been discovered. They traded to India, Persia, Arabia and Egypt. It was at Malinda that Vasco de Gama, in the year 1498, procured a pilot to conduct him to India.

The Portuguese speedily possessed themselves of the principal positions on the coast for a range of about 2,400 mile. Their power did not, however, extend far inland, though they made efforts to advance into the country, chiefly with a view to reach the gold mines, the produce of which was brought down the Zambesi to Sofala (supposed by some to have been the Ophir of the Bible). But instead of the abundance they expected, they found the gold, as in other parts of Africa, had to be laboriously washed from the extraneous substances in which it is deposited.

As the power of the Portuguese nation declined, the Arabs re-established their independence over a portion of their former possessions, so that the coast from Delagoa Bay to Cape Delgado, 1,300 miles, is all that remains to the Portuguese, while the coast from Delgado to Magadoxo is claimed by the Sultan of Zanzibar, a range of 1,100 miles. Though, in fact, the sovereignty thus claimed by the Portuguese and Arabs is merely nominal, except here and there where forts are maintained. The natives beyond the range of these forts pay no taxes, and are in fact a source of terror to the Portuguese who subsidize them at times, and have difficulty in holding their ground; indeed, Mr. Young has just brought word that they have been driven out of Senna and all places south of the Zambesi by the Zulus.

The blight of slavery had fallen upon their settlements, and of the prosperity for which they were at one time famous, scarce a shadow remains. The trade consists in gold, ivory and slaves. The slave trade, though contrary to Portuguese law, has unceasingly been carried on with the knowledge and connivance of the officials; happily it has been curtailed by the stoppage of the trans-Atlantic traffic; but the Portuguese still supply the Arabs with slaves for the eastern markets. The only healthy symptom is a trade which seems likely to spring up between our colony of Natal and the Portuguese settlements at Delagoa Bay, Quilimane and Mozambique. It is to be regretted the sovereignty over 1,300 miles of coast should be in the hands of a jealous and indolent people like the Portuguese, who by their commercial restrictions have, in fact, left their own subjects and the native chiefs little else to engage in but the slave trade, while they play this dog-in-the-manger policy on the coast of a fertile country, possessed of fine harbors and rivers more or less navigable. The Zambesi, the chief river of all, Livingstone has proved to be navigable for

700 or 800 miles inland, interrupted, it is true, by cataracts, but still offering facilities for commerce; while its tributary, the Shire, gives access from the sea to the great lake Nyassa, with the exception of about 35 miles of rapids not navigable, as has been recently proved by Mr. Young of the Livingstone search expedition.

In the returns of trade between Portugal and her African settlements, no distinction is made between those on the west and east coasts; indeed they are kept so imperfectly that I am compelled to estimate them as follows, viz.:

Imports to Africa.....	£300,000
Exports from Africa.....	409,000

In marked contrast with the Portuguese, the Sultan of Zanzibar encourages European commerce, both on the island so named and on the coast over which he claims sovereignty, though his influence does not extend over the heathen tribes beyond the range of his forts. The rapid development of the Zanzibar trade is a striking proof of the resources of Eastern Africa, and confirms the accounts which have reached us of its ancient prosperity. The island is 48 miles long by 15 to 30 broad. In 1861 it contained about 250,000 inhabitants, and is supposed in the three following years, to have increased to 300,000, consisting of Arabs, half castes, and settlers from India, together with negro slaves from the mainland; the latter carry on the cultivation, while all trade is in the hands of the Hindoos. In 1834 the trade of Zanzibar was reported to consist of a few imports from Arabia, and exports of gum and ivory to Bombay. In the year ending April, 1866, it was visited by sixty-six square-rigged vessels of all flags, amounting to 21,000 tons, besides of Indian, Persian, and Arab craft 8,000 tons; and, taking an average of five years ending 1865 the

Imports were.....	£342,562
Exports were.....	377,801

Of these the largest proportion is with British India; the Germans and Americans comes next; the British trade is, however, on the increase.

These results will show what might be done on the coast with settled government; but the Island of Zanzibar is an Arab settlement, and I have to do only with that portion of the trade which is derived from the Ethiopic races on the mainland. It is the chief mart for ivory, and Baker mentions that when he reached the neighborhood of the Nyanza Lakes, he found the natives wearing cloth, and possessed of other goods which had been passed along from Zanzibar. From the last consular report, I find the imports from the mainland to have been, on an average of five years, equal to £225,000, exclusive of slaves.

A considerable trade has been carried on between Zanzibar and Lagos in cowries, of which there is here a fishery.

The Zanzibar dominions are the only part of Africa where the slave trade is legal. There are recognised importations into the Island during a certain portion of the year, under a system of passes; during the last five years the average number entered at the customs has been 14,000 per annum, on which a duty of \$2 per head is levied. Adults are worth £2 to £7, boys and girls 25s. to 50s. The slaves in Zanzibar are well treated, but, contrary to experience in America, they do not increase. General Rigby states that only 5 out of every 100 female slaves bear children; this he ascribes not to disparity of the sexes, but to their unwillingness to rear children, which will be sold as soon as they grow into sufficient value. It is uncertain how many of the slaves annually imported are exported from the island to the eastern markets, but it is thought not less than 6,000. The regulations alluded to are indeed but a mere cloak for a traffic carried on by the Arabs from places on the coast as far south as Mozambique, to ports in the Red Sea and Persian Gulf. These, jointly with what are brought from the White Nile country and across the Great Desert from Central Africa, furnish slaves for Arabia, Syria, and Asia Minor, as far as Constantinople; while those carried to the Persian Gulf supply Mesopotamia, Persia, and the countries eastward as far as the Indus. The unhappy negroes are to be found sprinkled over the country, from the confines of Russia to Cashmere, and from the Indus to the Mediterranean.

The great difficulty we have experienced in our efforts to put down the Mahomedan slave trade is due to its sanction by their religion. Slavery has existed among eastern races from the remotest ages, and is in some respects necessary to their society as constituted. They do not, therefore understand our views; hence the chiefs and rulers, even though willing, might be unable to suppress it; but in fact they not unfrequently derive much profit from the traffic. We have hitherto been restrained from putting it down with a high hand, because our policy in the East is considered involved, lest we should excite the hostility of the countries concerned. But our proceedings on the east coast, as yet, are calculated to irritate, rather than seriously interrupt the traffic. It has been suggested that the coast should be scoured by steam gunboats, capable of following the dhows into shoal water, which would be less expensive than the cruisers at present on the station; while some of these latter could be employed with advantage on the Red Sea, so as to intercept the traffic brought from the White Nile as it crosses to Arabia. The Egyptian Government has been induced to place a steamer on the White Nile to check the evil; and I trust before we have done with Abyssinia that something may be arranged to hinder the transit through that country.

I come now to the caravan trade by camels from Morocco and Tripoli, across the desert, which the Arabs and Moors carry on with Central Africa, We know but little of that between Morocco and Timbuctoo, except that the returns are chiefly in slaves. From Tripoli the caravans pass by way of Mourzuk to Bornou and Soudan—Kuka and Kano being the chief centres from whence branch caravans pass to other places. We are indebted to Denham and Clapperton, Richardson and Barth, for our knowledge of this commerce; and fuller details are expected in a work by Dr. Rohlf, now in the press in Germany. The cost of transport is about £30 per ton, independently of duties and exactions on every pretext, except where the caravan is strong enough to bear down opposition; it takes four months to cross the desert, so that the cost of goods at Tripoli is quadrupled by the time they reach Kuka and Kano. The returns are therefore chiefly in slaves, with the addition of a small amount in valuables, such as gold, ivory, ostrich skins, and a little antimony. Ordinary articles of produce would not bear the cost of transport.

The return caravans frequently include over 5,000 slaves; large numbers of whom die of hunger, thirst and fever on the way—the route being actually marked by the whitening bones of the wretched beings who have sunk under the fatigues of the journey. A whole caravan has been known to perish for want of water.

At Mourzuk the slaves are sold, at from £20 to £25 per head, and from thence smuggled into Tripoli, Egypt and the East. It is in vain that we have treaties with the Turkish and Egyptian Governments—the officials connive at the traffic; we have no means of enforcing the treaties in the case of this inland slave trade, such as we have at sea; but it happens we have a more effectual means of extinguishing it by the readier access to Central Africa afforded by the River Niger, so that we can undersell by that channel those engaged in the caravan trade, and bring down returns in produce such as can be raised in abundance. As an example of how this will work, I may mention that a gentleman having ascended the Niger in a steamer direct from England, to a point within a few days journey of Bedá, saw a caravan arrive there with European goods from Tripoli, part of the goods being loaf sugar made at Whitechapel! There can, in fact, be no doubt that so soon as the Niger trade has been developed, the caravan trade from Tripoli and Morocco will be extinguished, and with it will end the necessity of carrying back returns in the shape of human beings.

Having thus made the circuit of Ethiopia, I summarise its commerce with the civilized world in a table which will be found on the following page.

*Summary of the Trade with the Colored Races of Africa, including
Bullion and Specie.*

(Sums in this table given in round numbers.)

	Imports into Africa.	Exports from Africa.	Memoranda
United Kingdom.....	£1,373,000	£1,957,000	Average of 3 years ended 1866
France	767,000	1,053,000	“ 4 “ ‘64
Belgium.....	8,000	26,000	“ 3 “ ‘66
Spain	4,000	2,000	“ 4 “ ‘63
Portugal.....	300,000*	409,000	“ 2 “ ‘64
Holland.....	81,000	93,100	“ 3 “ ‘63
Germany.....	76,000*	79,000	“ 3 “ ‘64
United States.....	379,000	486,000	Year 1861
Brazil.....	56,000	30,000	Average of 3 years ended 1864
East Indies.....	156,000	227,000	“ 3 “ ‘65
Cape of Good Hope and Natal.	130,000*	180,000*	Estimate
Egypt.....	50,000*	75,000	} Ivory to United Kingdom and } rance, average of 6 years. Average of 2 years ended 1864
Barbary States.....	150,000*	71,000	
Miscellaneous (say).....	3,530,000	4,687,000	
	100,000*	100,000*	
	3,630,000	4,787,000	

It is to be observed, that with the exception of ivory and gold, no legitimate commerce has yet been established with Central Africa. Europeans have in fact as yet traded with the natives dwelling on the mere outskirts of this vast territory, and though the trade on the west coast has reached respectable dimensions, it is still capable of being largely increased; and, as I have shown, is rapidly increasing. That of the east coast is well nigh neglected.

The Arabs are the only people who have established a regular communication with Central Africa; by introducing the camel from Arabia, they were enabled to open paths through the desert, which had previously defied all efforts. By successive migrations they became in time the ruling power, introducing the Mahomedan religion and Arab civilization, the traces of which latter can be discovered to this day. They founded kingdoms, ample accounts of which have been transmitted to us by the Arab writers of the twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth centuries; while modern travellers have ascertained that these countries in Central Africa are now inhabited by a variety of races, some of them red or chocolate color, and differing in shades of black. The black tribes again range from those with high features, approaching the Caucasian, to the common negro. Of all these races the Felatahs are the most warlike, and they are supposed to have emerged from the condition of a mere pastoral tribe, and to have founded their powerful empire of Sokatu, within a century from this time. They are still encroaching on their neighbors.

With the exception of some few nomadic tribes, the people for security live chiefly in large towns fortified by mud walls, sufficiently strong to

* Items which have been estimated.

resist ordinary attacks, and round these towns cluster agricultural villages. The space within the walls is usually extensive, the houses are interspersed with cultivated fields, and this renders it difficult to estimate the population with accuracy; but it is certain that many of the towns contain as many as 50,000 to 60,000 inhabitants, though some travelers rate them as high as 100,000.

In all the towns, markets are held every two or three days; large numbers from the neighbouring villages attend them; and although their dealings would appear to us trifling, still there is everywhere shown a strong love of trade.

Cotton and indigo are cultivated, and in many towns there is a considerable manufacture of cotton cloth, noted for its excellent quality and the durability of its dye, which latter equals, if it does not excel, in quality anything done in Manchester. Besides cloth, there are manufactures of leather, as saddlery, bags cushions, &c. The art of smelting is understood, and in some places gold chains and ornaments are manufactured with creditable taste and skill. The trade of the blacksmith is everywhere plied. At the Exhibition of 1851, the late Mr. Robert Jamieson exhibited some specimens of native copper ware, tinned inside, rudely done no doubt, but proving they possess that as well as several other useful arts.

Salt is a prime article of commerce; it is brought by caravan from certain points in the great desert, and likewise from the coast.

Some of the canoes on the Niger, approaching the sea, are large enough to convey upwards of one hundred people; and Park saw one as high up the river as Sego, carry four horses and six or eight men.

The medium of exchange differs in various places. In Kano it is cowries; in Bornou, cloth; in Loggun iron, where indeed, in Denham's time, a kind of iron coinage was in use, and Baikie saw the same thing in 1854, when he ascended the Tchadda. In general, in all important transactions, the value is expressed in the price of a slave.

The religion of the dominant races is Mahomedan. The only written character is the Arabic, and the Koran is, of course, read in all mosques—though sometimes the reader does not understand a word, and the hearers very seldom, if ever.

Disputes are adjusted by palaver, when professed advocates, who can expound the Koran, conduct the cause of the litigants, often with much ingenuity. These palavers are, indeed, everywhere a marked feature of the native races, as they are, one and all, noted for loquacity.

The proportion of slaves to free population differs in various countries. At Kano, Clapperton says the free population was in the proportion of one to thirty slaves; other travelers estimate in other places the proportion of

slaves to vary from two-thirds to four-fifths. There is, however, a wide difference between the domestic, or born slaves, who form the bulk, and slaves who have been purchased or captured. The domestic slaves have certain well established rights, only give up a portion of their time to their masters, and cannot be sold out of their districts except for crime, adjudged in due form by palaver. In short, it is rather a mild form of serfdom than slavery.

All these facts bespeak a certain security of property and industry protected, as well as the elements of civilization. There are, however, no traces of antiquity—no works of art—and it is wonderful that so much of the Arab civilization should have survived, amid the constant slave hunts and wars which for three centuries have prevailed to supply the demand for slaves for America. That demand has only now ceased, so that slaves are no longer sent down from these countries to the coast, and they are, therefore, ripe for legitimate commerce. To this rich and populous region there is ready access by the River Niger, next in size to the Nile, but destined to play a still more important part in the civilization of Africa, affording as it does, together with its equally important branch, the Tchadda, a noble highway to the very heart of the continent.

The history, too, of the Niger is not a little strange. The sources of other great rivers have frequently been the object of curiosity, but the Niger alone has been distinguished by the interest attaching to its junction with the sea. Its existence was successfully known to the Egyptians, Greeks, Romans and Arabs, the latter, indeed, having settled on its banks at Timbuctoo. An enormous body of water was known to flow eastward towards the great desert; it was supposed to be lost in the sands of Sahara, or to be a branch of the Nile; and other theories innumerable were from time to time put forth, until 1830, when the problem was solved by Richard Lander, who, extending the previous achievements of Park, followed its lower course to the sea, and laid open the long-coveted channel for commerce with Central Africa.

The first attempt to render Lander's discovery available, was by a company formed in Liverpool, which sent out an expedition consisting of two steamers, accompanied by the late Mr. Macgregor Laird, who published an interesting account of its proceedings and misfortunes. Having entered the river too late in the season, the steamers grounded at the confluence of the River Tchadda. Out of 48 men 9 only survived, and the capital of the company was lost.

Mr. Robert Jamieson, a merchant of Glasgow, next fitted out a steamer in 1839. His operations were commercially unfavorable; but they added greatly to our knowledge of the Niger and its delta, besides exploring the Rivers Benin and Old Calabar. The loss of life, though great, was not so deplorable as on the previous attempt.

In 1841 followed the well known Government expedition, which cost the country upwards of £200,000, and accomplished absolutely nothing. The failure of the expedition was foreseen by Mr. Jamieson and Mr. Laird, while the late Mr. Thomas Stirling wrote to Lord John Russell predicting, with marvelous accuracy, the misfortunes which ensued. Though the sickness was general, the loss of life did not exceed 53 out of a complement of 303.

In marked contrast with this deplorable failure was the expedition fitted out by Macgreggor Laird in 1854, at his own risk, but partly assisted by Government. Under charge of Dr. Baikie, the steamer ascended the Tchadda 300 miles beyond the point previously reached, and returned to Fernando Po after having been in the river 118 days, *without the loss of a man*. This gratifying fact, so different from all previous experience, was due to better sanitary arrangements, and the use of quinine as a preventive; also to the plan of manning the ship with blacks, and sending the smallest possible complement of Europeans to officer the ship and work the engines. By the observance of these rules, the frightful mortality has been obviated, which previously was the sure attendant of a river expedition.

Notwithstanding that this expedition was merely one of exploration, the produce picked up in exchange for outward cargo realized £2,000.

Encouraged by these results, Mr. Laird entered into a contract with Her Majesty's Government, binding himself for a small subsidy to maintain steam communication on the river and its tributaries, and to carry goods and passengers for all who might offer. He further embarked a considerable capital in trading stations at various points on the river.

In 1857, the returns realized about.....	£4,000
" 1858, owing to various drawbacks, they were.....	2,500
" 1859, they realized about.....	8,000

In 1860, there was no ascent, owing to the hostility of the natives in the delta and the absence of a promised convoy. This, however, led to the conclusion that the best way to remove the hostility of the people in the river and delta is to trade with them at proper intervals, since it was proved on this occasion that their hostility arose, not from the presence of white men in the river, but because the steamers gave them the go-bye, whereas they have been in the habit of levying dues on all canoes passing up and down.

Unhappily, while maturing these plans, Mr. Laird died in 1861, and it became my duty as his executor to close up these most interesting operations. Accordingly the steamer made its final ascent in 1861, and the year's trading in the delta and river realized 10,000*l*.

During the next four years a gunboat was sent up annually with sup-

plies for Dr. Baikie at the confluence, where he held the post of agent for Her Majesty's Government, a post which has since been raised into a consulate, and is now held by Mr. Lyons McLeod.

The Niger enterprise has since been taken up by a Manchester company, unsupported by a subsidy. In 1865 they sent a steamer up to the confluence with a well-assorted cargo and an experienced agent, which resulted, I understand, in the most successful year's trading yet attained. The operations of 1866 and 1867 have not transpired, but if not equally successful it has not been due to any inherent obstacles, but rather to the limited scale on which they have been conducted. Whatever may be the result of the spirited operations of this company, they have certainly made valuable additions to our stock of experience.

The truth is, that at present no steamer will pay her expenses on the river. The caravan trade has to be diverted gradually from the desert routes to Tripoli and Morocco towards points on the rivers Niger and Tchadda. New markets have to be established, and new industries have to be created, to supply returns in produce, before the traffic will suffice to cover the heavy expense of steam navigation. Returns will be obtained in ivory, shea butter, indigo, and other articles of produce, and already the native traders, availing themselves of the steamers, have brought down native cloths made in the interior, tobies, fine mats, and other goods, which sell well on the coast. But to effect any good in the Niger steam navigation is indispensable; and to maintain this, a subsidy for five years I consider would suffice, as by that time it would become self supporting. Whoever embarks in this enterprise without a subsidy, must be prepared to incur heavy loss for several years, merely, if successful, to open the way to others who would be eager to reap the fruits of his outlay.

Impressed with these views, I urged on the Government the advantage of continuing the subsidy granted to the late Macgregor Laird, to whoever would carry out his plans, with such amendments as experience has since suggested. These were to place suitable steamers on the river for a monthly service to the confluence during eight months of the year, while it is navigable for cargo vessels; to offer every inducement to the native traders (educated blacks from Sierra Leone and Liberia) to enter into the trade and become a useful class of middlemen; to employ them freely as clerks and agents under European superintendence; to form trading sections at proper intervals, and keep the same stocked with goods, so as to obviate the hostility of the natives, and thus make sure of the ground as far as the confluence; operations could subsequently have been pushed up the Tchadda in sea-going steamers 300 miles above the confluence, or 570 from the sea, and up the Niger 470 miles from the sea to the rapids of Boussa, beyond which the Niger is again available

for transport through a fertile country 28 far as Bammakoo, a distance of nearly 1,000 miles.

An influential company offered to embark 80,000*l.* in steamers and trading stations to carry out these operations, stipulating for a subsidy of 6,000*l.* per annum for five years, which they considered would be equivalent to sharing the loss on the first two or three years equally between the Government and the company. I regret to say, that although this offer was approved by Lord Palmerston, and recommended for adoption by Lord Russell at the Foreign Office, in which department the matter originated—the scheme was vetoed at the Treasury.

I trust I may be excused for dwelling so long on the Niger enterprises, because it is impossible to over-estimate the importance of that majestic river, as the only available highway to the Mahomedan countries of the Soudan—populous, productive, and semi-civilized—the key to the regeneration of Africa.

In conclusion, I may be allowed to express a hope that the success which has at length crowned our efforts for the suppression of the slave trade on the west coast, may not lead to a premature withdrawal of the squadron and the relaxation of our vigilance—but rather that the same system may be extended to the east coast, so that a flourishing trade may be established there as it has been on the west—that we may press for more stringent treaties with Persia and Turkey, Egypt and Muscat, so that the sea-borne slave trade may be stamped out wheresoever it may be found—and that although we cannot directly reach the inland slave trade it may be as effectually extinguished by the encouragement of steam navigation on the Niger. By these means it may be that the gloom which has for long ages settled upon this continent, will, in our time, be lifted up, and the dawn of commerce, civilization, and Christianity be hailed throughout the length and breadth of Africa.

THE EASTERN QUESTION IN EUROPE.

The Summer has at last come: and in the Old World the press and public men are putting to this "late guest" the question which the father of the bride in Sir Walter Scott's ballad addresses to the young Lochinvar, "O come ye in peace, or come ye in war?" A practical question it is in this case, of the gravest importance, not to the press and to public men in Europe alone, but to all men everywhere; to the farmers of Illinois and to the merchants of New York as well as to the bankers of Paris and to the politicians of Berlin. The French War

Minister is making formidable reports upon the efficiency of the new Chassepot rifle, which did such cruel service at Mentana upon the young Italian volunteers of Garibaldi's luckless expedition, and which has now been put into the hands of every soldier in the tremendous army of France. The French Minister of Marine announces that the French fleet is now ready for extensive operations, and that its reorganization as an iron clad navy is fast approaching completion. The questions whether it is not necessary for France to fight some one, and whom it is best for France to fight, are daily discussed in the French journals, just as they were two years ago after the Prussian victory of Sadowa—just as they were a year ago after the close of the great Paris Exposition. The reserves of the Bank of France continue to be increased. The distress in the manufacturing districts in France is so great as to furnish the advocates of protection with an opportunity upon which they have eagerly seized, of denouncing the commercial treaty of 1860 with England as the source of woes unnumbered. In the French capital the laws against gatherings in the streets are enforced with a severity unknown for ten years past; and the restrictions imposed by Power upon the Press are sharper, more vexatious and more irritating than ever. All this, it must be confessed, has an aspect of coming conflicts, and goes far to justify the apprehensions of a general European war, which, the cable reports to us, are loudly expressed throughout France and the Continent.

Furthermore, it is obviously impossible that Europe can for any great length of time go on in her present state of "armed peace" without a serious explosion. The burden imposed upon the wealth and industry of the Continent by the existing armaments of all the powers, is not only utterly without precedent; it is wholly incompatible with the spirit of the age and the tendencies of public opinion even in the least enlightened of European countries. If the greater powers of Europe were now ruled as they were, for example, in the time of Frederick the Great, or of the first Napoleon, by autocratic sovereigns substantially independent of the popular will and the popular intelligence, it might be possible to protract indefinitely a state of things which in all the European monarchies compels a sort of financial congestion, and which in some of them, as for example in Austria and in Italy, amounts to a deliberate organization of public insolvency. But there is no one European country to day, unless we are to except Spain, in which the government is exempt from the necessity of cajoling if it does not consult the opinion of the public, and there is no one country of Europe in which the public has not already begun to give signs that it will not much longer acquiesce in the actual status of things. If France

and Germany, for example, are to keep on foot between them nearly a million and a half of armed men, and to expend upon their military establishments sums amounting in the aggregate to more than one-fourth of the whole public revenues of both nations, it is but natural and reasonable that Frenchmen and Germans should sooner or later demand that the necessity for these enormous efforts be clearly demonstrated. That necessity can only be demonstrated by the dread reality of war; the sole alternative of which is a general disarmament. Of the latter we see no symptoms; every suggestion looking to such a result which has been put forth by various governments during the last twelve months having been received with indifference. If Europe then be steadily drifting towards a general war, in what quarter is its outbreak to be expected?

The conflict between France and Prussia, which was last year regarded as imminent, has been growing more and more improbable with every month which has followed the conferences held by Napoleon III. with the Emperor of Austria and his premier, the Baron Von Beust, at Salzburg in September, 1867. Such a conflict, had it broken out in July or August, 1866, while South Germany was still smarting under the shame and surprise of its overwhelming defeat by the Prussian arms, might perhaps have resulted in breaking up the Prussian schemes for a reorganization of Germany around the Prussian throne. Austria, Bavaria, Wurtemberg, Baden and the Hesses were then really in arms against Prussia; Saxony had not then lost her position irretrievably, and Hanover was in a ferment of hostility to its Prussian conquerors. Had the French then crossed the Rhine as the allies of South German independencies they might possibly have been welcomed, and their work achieved. But when Napoleon III visited Austria in September, 1867, he had abundant occasion to satisfy himself that the French opportunity of 1866 had gone by never to return; that the expulsion of Austria from Germany had been accepted by Austria herself as an irretrievable fact; and that the hope of a real German unity had pretty thoroughly mastered, even in Bavaria and Wurtemberg, the traditional dislike of the Catholic South Germans for their stiffnecked, arrogant and Protestant brethren of the North. Napoleon III came back to Paris from Austria, there is reason to believe, profoundly satisfied that any French interference in German affairs would only precipitate the whole German people into the arms of Prussia. He brought back with him also a new programme of European politics for the new future, a programme concocted by him in many conversations with the able and far seeing statesman Von Beust, who, escaping from the ruins of the Saxon monarchy, has contrived to find a refuge in the highest post of the Austrian Empire. To this

new programme it was necessary not only that France should make herself at once more formidable in the field than she had ever before been; but also that Austria and Prussia should put themselves in the highest condition of military efficiency; and that all the efforts of the leaders of opinion in the three countries should be directed toward appeasing the resentments, distrusts and jealousies by which the masses in each are animated towards the others. For this new programme of European policy, it is asserted on the highest authority, tends to no less a result than the substantial expulsion of Russia from Europe; to the reconstruction of the Polish nationality and of the Scandinavian power, and to the greatest extension of Austria eastward to the Euxine.

Many signs have recently concurred to show not only that such a programme as this has been conceived, but that it has been advancing towards its fulfillment. The extraordinary efforts which the Russian government has been making during the last three or four months to "crush out" utterly the "poison of Polish nationality" from the provinces which were known down to last year as the "Kingdom of Poland;" the sudden reappearance of the "Polish Societies" in Paris and in Switzerland; the repeated declarations of Count Bismarck that peace is not and will not be in peril between Paris and Berlin; and the mysterious visit which Prince Napoleon, a well known partisan of the extreme anti-Russian movement in Europe, is now making to the Emperor of Austria at Vienna, may be enumerated as among the most striking of these signs.

Simultaneously with these indications we have the Turkish Government suddenly taking the initiative in propositions of reform more liberal than any which have ever been proposed to it by its European allies—propositions which proceed directly from the Sultan, and which certainly tend to put the Moslem authorities in a very favorable light of contrast with the Russian policy towards Poland. This liberal demonstration on the part of the Sublime Porte has been responded to in Servia by the murder of the reigning Prince of that country, which has long been a great focus of Russian intrigues for the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire; and by a vivacious renewal of the Greek clamor for an extension of the Hellenic monarchy.

We cannot therefore but regard it as eminently probable that the "Eastern Question" is on the eve of assuming practical and perilous shape; and that Russia may be about to take upon herself the dread responsibility of provoking such an explosion of that question as must almost certainly lead to an armed interference of Austria and France in defence of the Turkish authority. The extreme and restless "Muscovite Party" appears to have got so completely into possession of

the Imperial machinery at St. Petersburg, and to be so resolutely bent on an effort to arrest the progress of Austria towards the consolidation of her power on the new basis made for it by the results of Sadowa, that such an outbreak in the East must almost inevitably lead to a new war between Russia and the allies of Turkey. In this war, should it come, Prussia would occupy at first a position curiously analogous with that held by Austria in the Russian war of 1854; but if the speculations in which we have indulged as to the ultimate designs of Napoleon and of Von Beust be, as we believe them to be, well founded, and if the arrangements which have so long, as we believe, been maturing to bring Count Bismarck into harmony with those designs have borne their fruit, we may expect to see Prussia also wheel into line with the Western allies against the Empire of the Czar. In that event there can be little doubt that the conflict would result in effecting a complete and most important change in the map of Europe. We should then look to see the policy of Peter the Great and Catherine utterly foiled; Germany constituted, with the consent of France and of Austria; Poland and Scandinavia erected into a powerful outwork of the West against Russia, and Austria become in fact, as she is in name, the *Æster Reich* or Empire of the East.

The possibility of changes such as these is beyond a doubt, and, considered merely as a possibility, they are of such a nature, and so important, as to make it worth while for us to watch with enlightened attention every move in a great political game, which may have so profound a bearing upon the future of Europe and of the world. If events like these, or events of equal importance, be not indeed on the point of coming to pass, as the upshot and excuse of the tremendous military reorganization of Europe during the last two years, the burden of that reorganization will assuredly bring it to the earth ere long with a crash not less startling, perhaps, but far less compatible with the welfare of mankind.

PROSPECTS OF THE COTTON TRADE.

It would be premature, as yet, to attempt any definite estimate of the growing cotton crop. There are, however, some generally recognized facts which foreshadow what may be expected under certain conditions; and to specify these is all we now propose to contribute toward the elucidation of this much canvassed question. The unsatisfactory results to the planters of the last crop induced a general limitation of the area planted this year. The factors, as well as the planters, had been impoverished,

and were neither able nor willing to make liberal advances to the growers. They took the view that the true course, pending the high prices of food products, was to turn more attention to the growth of cereals, and by curtailing the production of cotton help to enhance its price. To such an extent was this policy acted upon, that the original planting afforded the prospect of a crop below that of 1867. The natural effect of this tendency was to cause an advance in the price of cotton at Liverpool from 7d. to 13d. during the period of planting; and this advance, again reacting upon the planters, induced them to place more land under cotton. Ordinarily, March planting is deemed unpropitious; in this instance, however, the season has favored the crop, and the March cotton appears to be unusually promising. A comparison of reports from all sections of the cotton region would give the following result as to the area of land planted compared with last year: North Carolina, 10 per cent less; South Carolina, 20@25 per cent less; Georgia, 25 per cent less; Florida, about the same as in 1867; Alabama, 15 per cent less; Louisiana, 20 per cent more; Mississippi, fully equal to last year; Tennessee, more; Arkansas, more; Texas, fully up to 1867. Setting off these accounts one against another, we have, as an average result, an area under cotton about equal to that of last year. In most of the States, the crop is reported rather backward, the principal exceptions being in Tennessee and Arkansas. Without exception, however, the stands are represented as unusually good, the plant healthy, and the condition of the land favorable. There has been no appearance of the army worm, except in some parts of Texas, at which no concern is now felt in the vicinity affected. The weather has hitherto been unexceptionally favorable. The heavy fall of rain at the North appears to have been accompanied with an unusually moist condition of the atmosphere South; which has been conducive to a vigorous and healthy vegetation. Nor does there appear to have been any neglect of the culture owing to the idleness of negroes. All accounts represent that the late severe experience of the colored population, bordering in some districts upon famine, have produced among them a greater willingness to work, and for reasonable wages; the result having been that the planters have found it practicable to keep the crop clean and in good condition. To sum up, then, we have about the same acreage under cotton as last year, with a much better condition of the plant. It appears, therefore, that as the crop now stands there is a reasonable prospect of a better yield than last year. There are yet the contingencies of weather and worm to encounter, of which the event only can be the exponent; but, providing that no unusual misfortune should arise from these sources, we may hope for a fair increase on the yield of 1867.

An accurate knowledge of the prospects of consumption is also necessary to an estimate of the probable future value of cotton, a question at present of more than usual interest, yet also one of unusual doubt. The rapid advance in the staple at Liverpool early in the year has somewhat unbalanced the judgment of the trade, and produced considerable irregularity of movement. The decline to 7d. per lb. induced a sudden revival of the demand for goods; and spinners and manufacturers, long stagnant, accepted immense orders. To fill these engagements, a consumption averaging 66,000 bales per week was required for the first 15 weeks of the year, and the consequent demand produced an advance of $5\frac{3}{4}$ d per pound within four months. It soon became apparent, however that this immense production of goods so far exceeded the wants of the trade that the price of goods ceased to follow the advance in raw material, the greatest rise in cotton being $5\frac{3}{4}$ d. per lb., and in cloth only $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. Messrs. Ellison & Haywood's Liverpool *Circular* of June 1, has the following noteworthy remarks upon this feature of the trade:

At the opening of the year the price of Middling Uplands was $7\frac{1}{8}$ l, per lb.; $4\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Printers 4s. 9d. per piece, and $5\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Printers 6s per piece averaging together $13\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb.; 7lb. Shirtings 7s. 9d. per piece, and $8\frac{1}{2}$ lb. Shirtings 8s. 9d. per piece, averaging together 13d. per lb. The average price of these four descriptions of goods was, therefore, 12d per lb., and the margin in favor of manufacturers $6\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb. Working out the quotations at the close of each of the past six months we have the following result:

	Mid. Uplands, per lb.	Average of $4\frac{1}{4}$ to $5\frac{1}{4}$ lb. Printers, per lb.	Average of 7 to $8\frac{1}{2}$ lb Shirtings per pound.	Average Margin per pound.
Dec. 30.....	$7\frac{1}{8}$ d.	$18\frac{3}{4}$ d.	13d.	$6\frac{1}{2}$ d.
Jan. 31.....	$7\frac{1}{8}$ d.	$14\frac{1}{2}$ d.	$14\frac{1}{2}$ d.	$6\frac{1}{2}$ d.
Feb. 29.....	$9\frac{1}{8}$ d.	$15\frac{1}{2}$ d.	$15\frac{1}{2}$ d.	6 5-16
Mar. 31.....	$11\frac{1}{8}$ d.	$16\frac{1}{2}$ d.	$16\frac{1}{2}$ d.	$5\frac{1}{2}$ d.
April 30.....	$12\frac{1}{8}$ d.	$17\frac{1}{2}$ d.	$17\frac{1}{2}$ d.	4 11-16
May 30.....	$11\frac{1}{8}$ d.	$15\frac{1}{2}$ d.	16	$4\frac{1}{2}$ d.

Here it will be seen that piece goods followed the rise in cotton until the latter reached 9d. to 10d. per lb.; but after that the raw material shot far ahead of manufacturers, so that from the close of March to the present time the margin of prices, as compared with the average of the previous three months, has shown a difference of from 1d. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. against producers. But the most important fact exhibited by the table is that at the highest point cloth did not exhibit an advance of more than about $4\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb., while cotton showed a rise of $5\frac{3}{4}$ d., or, in other words, piece goods ceased to follow cotton beyond $11\frac{1}{2}$ d. per lb., and even then the response came some time after the latter price had been obtained in Liverpool.

A similar discrepancy between the advance on cotton and on goods obtained in our own markets; for the illustration of which we present the following comparison of prices of cotton and of sheetings at New York:

	Middling Uplands, ce ts.	Sheetings, Atlantic H.,
December 27.....	$15\frac{1}{2}$	15 cents.
January 31.....	$19\frac{1}{2}$ @ $19\frac{1}{2}$	$15\frac{1}{2}$ "
February 28.....	22 cents.	19 "
March 27.....	26 "	$16\frac{1}{2}$ "
April 30.....	$32\frac{1}{2}$ "	$18\frac{1}{2}$ "
May 30.....	31 "	17 "

These comparisons show that there is a point in the value of goods at which consumption begins to contract, and they also indicate with more or less clearness where that point lies. The advance at Liverpool in the price of shirtings of 4½d. per lb., produced such a check on the demand that sales to spinners, from being 66,000 bales per week in January, February, March and most of April, fell in May to 33,000 bales per week. This reduction of one-half in the consumption, however, is not for obvious reasons to be considered as the measure of what consumers would take at the then current prices of goods; but rather as meaning that the markets were so over stocked that, with the supply of raw material in the hands of spinners, only that small amount was required to meet the wants of the trade. How far the present large stocks of goods may continue to keep down the spinning demand is a question of much practical importance, yet one not easily determined. The cotton goods trade is not especially active in any part of the world, and is not likely immediately to become so. The exports of cotton goods from Great Britain to 16 principal countries for the first three months of the year were 583,000,000 yards against 478,000,000 for the same period of last year. The increase occurred chiefly in the shipments to India, China, Turkey and Australia, and has been followed by a sharp reaction in those markets; and as these countries have been taking nearly two-thirds of the exports, it is evident that a consequent reduction in the shipments in that direction must tell materially upon the cotton trade. This conclusion coincides with the general adoption of short time by the Lancashire mills, and warrants the expectation of a continued limitation of the consumption of cotton.

A glance at the probabilities of the immediate supply will further indicate the probabilities as to the value of the staple. The exports of cotton from the United States may be considered as almost at an end until the new crop comes to market. Our total stock is now reduced to about 115,000 bales, or about 130,000 bales less than at the same period of last year; so that our own spinners will require about all our supply. The supply of Great Britain for the three months, June, July and August, may be thus stated as compared with 1867:

	1868.	1867.
Stock at Liverpool May 30th.....	bales. 656,976	867,529
Stock at London June 1.....	" 36,730	56,910
At sea for Liverpool May 30.....	" 482,543	559,805
" London.....	" 60,309	88,553
Imports from other sources (estimated).....	" 60,000	60,000
Total supply for three months.....	bales. 1,296,548	1,632,837

The supply for the next three months may thus be taken, in round numbers, at 1,300,000 bales, against 1,632,000 bales for the same period of last year. The exports for this period, taking the average of 1867 as the basis, may be estimated at 190,000 bales; which leaves 1,110,000

bales for consumption and for stock at the close of the three months. Now a consumption at the average rate of the year 1867, viz., of 42,245 bales per week, would require 549,185 bales for three months, leaving for stock at the ports on September 1st. 560,815 bales, against 890,000 bales at the same date of last year, and 555,000 bales on January 1st, 1868. Beyond this period it would seem that the trade, if all things continue favorable for the growth of the plant, may count upon a somewhat increased supply from the United States, and probably fully average receipts from India; but upon the course of the trade for 1868-9 we decline at present to speculate; since with even an increased supply (which is as yet uncertain) so much depends upon consumption, and the consumption may be largely influenced by an abundant wheat harvest and consequent cheap food. So far as respects the three months ending September 1st, there appears to be nothing except unfavorable future reports as to the growing crops to justify higher prices than were current at the same period of last year, when the Liverpool quotations ranged at $10\frac{1}{2}d.$ @ $11\frac{1}{4}d.$

MILWAUKEE AND ST. PAUL AND MILWAUKEE AND PRAIRIE DU CHIEN RAILWAYS.

These railroads are now virtually consolidated, having been operated together through the year 1867, and agreements made for their final union. The report now before us is the fourth of the Milwaukee and St. Paul, and the seventh of the Milwaukee and Prairie du Chien Company. During the year the litigation which the St. Paul Company had been compelled to carry on with parties claiming to own the Eastern Division of the La Crosse and Milwaukee Railroad, and a portion of the rolling stock, has terminated in favor of the former, and secured to it the 95 miles of road involved in the dispute. The year also closes with the completion of the Iowa and Minnesota Division extending from McGregor, Io., to St. Paul Minn., 215 miles, the section between Cresco and Owatonna, 85 miles, having been opened about November 1, 1867. The Iowa and Minnesota Division is owned by the St. Paul Company, and was built at a cost of \$9,015,000, being about \$41,930 per mile. The company are not engaged on any additional lines, except in extending the existing line in Wisconsin from Omro to Winneconne, a distance of five miles, the cost of which will not exceed \$70,000, valuable donations in land, &c., from those towns having been made. Winneconne is on the Wolf River, which is navigable for steamboats 150 miles into the heart of a vast and valuable lumber region. The lines of railroad owned by the two companies

are reported at an aggregate length of 820 miles, and are described as follows:

1st. <i>Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway.</i>		
Milwaukee, via Watertown, to La Crosse	196	} 370 miles.
Milwaukee, via Horicon, to Portage	95	
Watertown to Sun Prairie	26	
Horicon to Berlin and Omro	53	
2d. <i>Milwaukee and Prairie du Chien Railway.</i>		
Milwaukee to Prairie du Chien	193	} 235 miles.
Milton to Monroe	42	
3d. <i>Iowa and Minnesota Division</i> (formerly known as the McGregor Western and the Minnesota Central Railways.)		
McGregor (opp. P. r. du Chien) to St. Paul, Minn.	215	215 miles
Aggregate length of all lines owned by companies		820 miles

The rolling stock in use on these several lines is enumerated in the following table:

	M. & St. Paul Rail'y.	Io. & Minn. Division.	M. & P. du C. R.	Total of all lines.
Locomotives	64	14	47	125
Passenger cars—1st class	25	8	27	60
“ 2d class	4	1	3	2
“ Sleeping	3	0	3	8
Baggage, mail and express	23	8	17	46
Box and freight cars	1,079	215	558	1,858
Platform cars	162	84	152	398

The following is a summary of the operations on the several lines for the year ending December 31, 1867:

	M. & St. P. (370 m.)	I. & M. Div. (215 m.)	M. & P. du C. (235 m.)	Total. (820 m.)
Miles run by trains—				
Passenger trains	369,081	75,029	296,724	740,834
Freight trains	692,522	154,142	483,180	1,329,844
Wood and gravel trains	112,846	39,537	73,085	225,468
Total miles run	1,174,449	268,708	852,989	2,296,146
Tons of freight carried—				
Tons eastward	297,344	90,248	230,609	618,201
Tons westward	142,984	58,643	128,206	329,833
Tons both ways	440,328	148,891	358,815	948,034
Tons carried one mile—				
Tons eastward	31,543,323	4,026,276	31,467,606	67,037,205
Tons westward	13,955,617	2,911,745	11,673,482	28,540,844
Tons both ways	45,498,940	7,538,021	43,141,088	96,178,049
Tonnage revenue—				
Revenue eastward	\$1,100,361 01	\$249,292 49	\$1,055,224 03	\$82,404,787 53
Revenue westward	694,168 08	188,377 56	4,934,716	1,331,892 80
Revenue both ways	1,794,529 09	437,580 05	1,504,571 10	3,736,680 33
Tonnage revenue per mile—				
Per mile eastward	3 49c.	5 38c.	3 35c.	4 07c.
Per mile westward	4 97c.	6 46c.	3 85c.	5 09c.
Per mile both ways	3 94c.	5 80c.	3 49c.	4 14c.
Passengers carried—				
Passengers eastward	159,493	46,548	120,373	326,414
Passengers westward	187,902	50,889	130,545	369,836
Passengers both ways	347,395	96,937	250,918	696,250
Passengers carried one mile—				
Passengers eastward	8,982,406	1,816,280	4,989,391	15,788,077
Passengers westward	12,221,946	1,939,981	5,332,217	19,494,144
Passengers both ways	21,204,352	3,756,261	10,321,608	35,282,221
Passenger revenue—				
Revenue eastward	\$371,646 04	\$90,514 03	\$177,313 03	\$639,473 10
Revenue westward	476,190 14	95,988 48	197,015 40	769,194 02
Revenue both ways	847,836 18	186,502 51	374,328 43	1,408,667 12
Passenger revenue per mile—				
Per mile eastward	4 14c.	4 98c.	3 55c.	4 22c.
Per mile westward	3 90c.	4 95c.	3 69c.	4 18c.
Per mile both ways	4 00c.	4 97c.	3 63c.	4 20c.

The gross earnings of the several lines, including mails rents, express, &c., were as shown in the following account:

	M. & St. Paul. (370 miles)	I. & M. Div. (215 miles)	M. & P. du C. (235 mil s.)	Total. (820 miles.)
Passengers.....	\$847,836 18	\$193,727 43	\$377,005 75	\$1,418,568 86
Freight.....	1,794,529 09	491,990 87	1,504,594 35	3,791,114 31
Military.....	2,796 88		44 43	2,841 36
Mails and rents.....	41,117 11			
Miscellaneous.....	6,365 24		27,347 51	
Express service.....	158,844 09	59,653 79	1,664 66	374,224 57
Telegraph.....	2,417 07		74,786 55	
Sleeping cars.....	13,701 35		2,028 55	
Elevators.....	78,799 94		4,358 20	18,059 55
Total.....	\$2,946,906 95	\$745,372 09	\$1,991,829 55	\$5,683,608 59
Operating expenses, including taxes and all other charges.....	1,722,217 21	592,886 98	1,381,081 63	3,695,655 82
Net earnings applicable to bond interest and dividends.....	\$1,224,189 74	\$182,985 11	\$610,747 92	\$2,017,922 77

These figures for 1867 compare with those of 1866 as shown in the following statement:

Gross earnings increased.....	\$407,606 99	\$202,651 25	\$.....	\$588,333 67
Gross earnings decreased.....			21,919 57	
Net earnings increased.....	290,086 27	35,703 09	239,570 50	565,359 86

The following compares the gross earnings of the several lines for the last four years:

	M. & St. P.	I & M. Div.	M. & P du C.	Total.
1864.....	\$1,402,105 86	\$.....	\$1,711,250 88	\$3,113,386 74
1865.....	2,535,001 43		1,985,511 71	4,520,513 14
1866.....	2,538,799 96	542,721 80	2,013,749 12	5,095,270 92
1867.....	2,946,406 95	745,372 09	1,991,829 55	5,683,608 59

From the above tables we make the following summary of comparative results for 1867, reducing the primary figures to relative proportions:

	M. & St. P. (old lines.)	M. & St. P. (I. & M. Div.)	Milw. & P. du Ch.	Total of all lines.
Miles of road operated.....	370	215	235	820
Train miles to mile of road.....	3,160	1,250	3,629	2,849
Tons of freight per mile.....	122,970	35,061	183,579	117,510
Passengers per mile.....	57,309	17,638	43,922	44,246
Gross earnings per mile.....	\$7,963 26	\$3,466 85	\$3,443 18	\$6,931 23
Expenses per mile.....	4,654 64	2,605 76	5,854 28	4,470 35
Net earnings per mile.....	3,308 62	851 09	2,588 90	2,460 88
Expenses, incl. taxes, &c., p. c.....	57	75	69	64%
Receipts per ton per mile.....	3.76 c.	5.80 c.	3.49 c.	4.35 c.
Receipts per pass. per mile.....	4.00 c.	4.97 c.	3.63 c.	4.20 c.

The gross earnings on all these lines for the year ending December 31, 1867, amounted to..... \$5,683,608 59
And the operating expenses to..... 3,695,655 82
Leaving the net earnings at..... \$2,017,922 77

This residue is charged with interest on the mortgage indebtedness and the Prairie du Chien preferred stock \$1,144,932,00, and hence the balance applicable to the St. Paul stocks is \$872,990 77. No dividends, however, were paid on either the preferred or common stock of the latter during the year, all the net earnings having been required to pay for new buildings and additional equipment for the roads. The directors announce that hereafter they will be able to pay a cash dividend, commencing the

current year on the preferred stock The floating debt is of such limited dimensions as to be manageable without fear of embarrassment. The general accounts of the companies are given separately and are as follows :

MILWAUKEE AND ST. PAUL COMPANY.

(Including the Iowa and Minnesota Division.)

Purchase of road.....	\$19,501,023 41	Stock—preferred	\$8,050,892 00
Construction of road.....	3,920,145 28	“ common	5,406,883 00
	\$23,421,168 69		\$13,457,775 00
Materials on hand.....	331,434 28	Bonds—1st mortgage.....	\$5,361,000 00
Railway shares owned.....	4,014,231 44	“ 2d mort. & inc.....	1,500,000 00
Post office dep't.....	19,236 27	“ Real estate.....	148 500 00
Due from agents & other companies.....	155,835 68	“ 1st mortgage (I. & M. Div.).....	2,000,000 00
Miscellaneous accounts.....	14,802 24	“ Assumed.....	3,492,042 06
Sinking fund, 2d mortgage bonds.....	24,000 00		\$12,501,542 06
	\$4,559,539 91	Pay rolls and bills.....	179,290 06
Interest paid on bonds since Jan. 1, 1868.....	155 564 50	Bills payable.....	259,646 52
Cash on hand.....	170,898 76	State Treasurer, Wis.....	86,267 21
	\$28,307,171 86	Due other roads.....	81,926 32
		Miscellaneous accounts.....	38,617 84
		Mil. & P. du Ch. RR. Co.....	732,940 03
		Income account.....	963,156 82
			\$28,307,171 86

MILWAUKEE AND PRAIRIE DU CHIEN COMPANY.

General property.....	\$7,698,381 00	1st mortg. bonds.....	\$390,500 00
Materials and fuel.....	168,861 51	Stock—1st preferred.....	3,314,250 00
Advances to I. & M. Div.....	732,940 03	“ 2d “.....	1,014,000 00
Post office dep't.....	10,851 07	“ common.....	2,986,081 00
Money lent in New York.....	295,072 92	Bonds & stocks cancelled by Sinking Fund.....	514,200 00
McGregor Western RR. bonds \$17,000	15,733 33	Reserved and unpaid Sinking Funds.....	178,580 00
Due from agents & other companies.....	95,574 54	Other accounts & balances.....	213,051 75
Survey of Monroe & Dubuque Extension.....	4,882 78	Convertible property and old debts	141,266 59
Cash on hand.....	128,371 35	Income account.....	498,639 22
	\$9,150,568 56		\$9,150,568 56

THE CHINA TRADE.

NUMBER II.

In considering the probable influence of the completion of communication by one or more lines of railway across the continent, especially upon the future of the Pacific States, it is necessary first to examine the existing routes.

The great bulk of the trade between Europe and America on the one hand, and all India and Asia on the other, is now, as it has been since the fifteenth century, carried on by sailing ships around the Cape of Good Hope. Its value is hardly to be measured by any figures of which the mind can take definite impress; nor would it be easy to collect the statistics of its many parts into an exhaustive and accurate view. In the year 1861, which we take for illustration, as showing the highest development

of the American trade before the depression caused by the war, and of that of Great Britain before it took on the rank growth consequent upon the same event—the tonnage of vessels departing for all China, and arriving thence from and at ports of the United States, Great Britain and France, and the declared values of goods carried by such vessels were as follows :

	Tons entered & cleared.	Values of im- ports & exp's.
Great Britain.....	201,590	\$65,000,000
United States.....	124,075	18,269,146
France.....	15,957	5, 00,000
Total.....	341,522	\$88,269,146

These figures, of course, include the values of treasure and merchandise carried during the same year by steamers *via* the Isthmus of Suez.

Taking New York as a central point, the distances by the usual sailing routes round the Cape are: to Calcutta 9,350 miles, to Hong Kong 14,000 miles, to Shanghai 14,500 miles. The ships engaged in the trade are for the most part of the best class fully fitted out, well manned and ably commanded. Their valuable cargoes and extra prizes for best passages, as with the first teas of the new crop, have led to the construction, here and in Great Britain, of the famous "tea clippers," unequalled for their performances. In 1866 eleven of these ships sailed from Foochow between the 29th of May and the 7th of June, and arrived in London or Liverpool between the 6th of September and 5th of October. Wonderful to think of, three of these, the "Taeping," "Ariel" and "Serica" sailed together on the 30th of May, and all arrived within a few hours of each other, on the 6th of September, the "Taeping" having won the "heat" of 14,000 miles in ninety-nine days, five hours, simply by being towed into dock before her competitors! Last year the race was won by the "Ariel," arriving on the 23d of September in 101 days, 22 hours, 30 minutes, and beating her successful rival of the previous year by four and a half hours! The ordinary voyages, however, range between four and five months.

The immense importance of the Eastern trade in past centuries, at once the coveted prize and gage of battle of all the great nations that have in turn claimed and exercised the maritime supremacy of the world, and have drawn from the profits of this commerce the sources of their material power, has in the present age turned the attention of many thinkers among the statesmen and merchants of Europe and America to numberless projects for diminishing the length of the voyages and the time consumed in them. Prominent among these have been the schemes for inter-oceanic ship canals across the Isthmus of Suez, uniting the waters of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, and across the Isthmus of Darien or Panama, connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. The one pro-

mises for the Eastern Hemisphere the same relative benefits that the other extends to the Western. The former, under the powerful stimulus of the Napoleonic policy and the French treasury, has gradually grown from the germ of an abstract idea into the fruit, now approaching ripeness, of accomplishment. M. Lesseps, the engineer of the work, promises that it shall be finally completed in October next. Already the canal is used for the transportation of cargoes by small vessels or lighters of inconsiderable draft; a considerable quantity of coal for the Abyssinian expedition having crossed the Isthmus in this way. Mr. Kelley estimated the value of the tonnage and trade of Great Britain, the United States and France that would to-day pass through a ship canal across the Isthmus of Panama at \$450,000,000 per annum, and the yearly saving in freight, insurance and the like at no less than about \$50,000,000; but the canal has not been built, nor, in spite of an occasional spasmodic agitation of the question, even begun. The Isthmus of Suez is now spanned by a railway, 252 miles long, constructed under the patronage of the Viceroy of Egypt; the Isthmus of Panama by the line, 47 miles in length, of the Panama Railway Company. These railroads and their maritime connections give us three great steam lines between Europe and America on the one hand and China and Japan on the other.

The first is that of the "Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company," of London, incorporated in 1840, which now performs a fortnightly service between Southampton and Marseilles and Yokohama, *via* Malta, Alexandria, Suez, Aden, Galle, Penang, Singapore, Hong Kong and Shanghai, with a weekly line to Bombay and Calcutta, and a monthly connection at Galle with Australia. The distance between Southampton and Yokohama, 11,586 miles, is performed in five connecting steamers, the time occupied in the transit of mails and passengers between London and Hong Kong being about forty three days, and the entire service is characterized by great regularity. This company, under a recent contract, is to receive from the British Government a subsidy of from £400,000 to £500,000 a year for twelve years.

Next comes the China lines of the "Compagnie des Messagers Impériaux," at present monthly, but promising soon to be semi-monthly. This company receives an enormous subvention from its Government, rather difficult to calculate with accuracy, inasmuch as its ships were built by loans from the imperial treasury and it has absorbed the entire steam marine of France, except the General Transatlantic Company's lines to New York, Panama and Mexico. Its service is parallel with that of the Peninsular and Oriental Company, and its steamers, having been more recently constructed and from ampler means, are larger and more powerful, and consequently perform the service with somewhat greater speed.

The third line is that of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company between New York and Hong Kong, *via* Panama and San Francisco, making four trips a month between this port and California, and one a month thence to China, by way of Japan, with a branch to Shanghai. The extreme length of its route is 11,900 miles, the distance to Yokohama being 10,300, and the time occupied in the voyage is at present about 54 days to Hong Kong, 50 to Shanghai and 44 to Yokohama. The missing link between this port and Europe is filled by an endless chain of steamers owned by European companies. The Pacific Company receives \$500,000 a year from the Government in the form of a postal subsidy for the China mail service, which is proportionately less than that enjoyed by the British and French lines.

Thus it will be seen that the distance and time by existing routes to China is about as follows:

FROM NEW YORK.						
	Sail, via Cape of Good Hope.		Steam, via Suez.		Steam, via Panama.	
	Miles.	Days.	Miles.	Days.	Miles.	Days.
To Yokohama.....	21,000	12-180	14,810	65	10,300	44
Shanghai.....	20,000	110-150	13,800	60	11,400	50
Hong Kong.....	19,500	100-140	13,000	55	11,900	54

FROM ENGLAND.				Via New York and Panama.	
To Hong Kong..	100-140	9,800	43	14,900	66
Shanghai.....	110-150	10,600	48	14,400	62
Yokohama.....	120-180	11,600	53	13,300	55

By the overland mail the time is already six days less than by steamer *via* Panama, so that even now the Japan mails are delivered most speedily to Great Britain by the American route.

To compare these distances, which are given in nautical miles, to those of the land route stated in statute miles, we add one sixth to the former. Thus the distance between New York and Hong Kong via the Cape of Good Hope, 14,000 nautical miles, is equal to about 16,300 statute miles. The distance by railway from New York via Chicago to San Francisco, is 3,250 statute miles, thence to Hong Kong by steamer, 6,700 nautical, or 7,800 statute miles, making the entire distance between New York and Hong Kong via the Pacific Railroad and China Mail Steamship route, 11,050 statute miles, as against 16,300 by sail. Again, the distance from London to Hong Kong, 13,300 nautical, is equal to 15,600 statute miles, while the entire distance between the same points by the American route is 14,000 statute miles. But in reaching these great distances the world has again almost unconsciously returned to the primitive ways of measuring them by time instead of length, by days instead of miles. This is the ultimate test to which all commercial routes must be subjected. The duration of the voyage by the existing routes has just

been given. In company with it, the time that will probably be occupied in the voyage by the Pacific Railway route, we take the present average performance of the mail and commercial steamship lines across the Atlantic as a standard for the entire sea route, and extend to the Pacific terminus the the present rate of speed by railway hence to Chicago, which is about twenty-five miles an hour on the express passenger trains. This would give 130 hours for the entire journey overland, although it is little likely that for some years after the first completion of the road, in about 1870, the trip will be made in less time than 150 hours, or six days and a quarter. Allowing ten days for the trans-Atlantic, and seventeen for the trans-Pacific voyage, with one day each for the connection at San Francisco and New York, and the entire journey would be made in the following time :

New York to Yokohama.....	24 days		London to Yokohama.....	35 days
“ “ Shanghai.....	29 “		“ “ Shanghai.....	40 “
“ “ Hong Kong.....	31 “		“ “ Hong Kong.....	41 “

This is no fancy, but a practical reality, the proof of which only awaits the development a few years hence of the favorable commercial conditions. Those who lament over the present “slow time” made by the China Mail steamers of the American line need not be discouraged, for their so-called “slowness” is the salvation of the enterprise. They make all the speed that their trade now requires or justifies, all that was made under like circumstances on the Atlantic, and whenever a trade springs up which demands on the Pacific the same speed now made on the Atlantic it is demonstrable that the demand will be met.

There can be no question then, that the bulk of all the mails, passengers and valuable merchandise passing between New York and Europe and Japan and China will cross the Pacific Railway. The course of exchange must inevitably follow the mails. But all except the more valuable cargoes must long continue to take the ocean routes, whether by sail or steam, for two reasons: 1st. They cannot pay any rate of freight at which the Pacific Railroad can take them, in view of the increased cost of transportation by railway as compared with that by steamship or sail, and especially of the heavy cost of the former west of the Mississippi; the probable railroad charge for a ton of ordinary merchandise between this port and San Francisco has been estimated at \$117, gold, while the entire charge for a ton of tea by steam from Shanghai to New York is only \$35, and by sailing ship \$15 to \$20. 2d. The Pacific Railway cannot for some years be expected to furnish the facilities required for the movement of large bodies of freight, as will be seen by a simple calculation. Supposing the road to attempt to transport the 230,000 tons now carried between New York and San Francisco,

at an average speed of 15 miles an hour; this would be about 700 tons a day, or 100 car loads, each train would reach its destination in 13 days, and, with only 2 days given for unloading and reloading at either terminus, would be at the starting point ready for a second trip in thirty days; thus not less than 3,000 cars would be needed for this trade alone, in addition to the vast number required for other through and local express, passenger and freight traffic.

From the foregoing statement it will be seen that the time occupied by mails, passengers and express freight in the journey between London or New York and Japan or China by way of San Francisco will compare with the existing routes, after the completion of the Pacific railway, and as soon as its full efficiency is reached, as follows :

From New York to—	Time, at present, by—		
	Pacific Railway. days.	Steamers via Panama. days.	Steamers via Suez. days.
Yokohama.....	24	44	65
Shanghai.....	29	50	60
Hong Kong.....	30	54	55
From London to—			
Yokohama.....	35	56	53
Shanghai.....	40	62	48
Hong Kong.....	41	66	43

This difference in time will inevitably turn the current of travel, trade and exchange into the American channel. At the same time—and especially if, as seems likely, the constitutional vices of the Chinese Custom House, on which Hong Kong flourishes, be removed—the British colony at that point will probably lose its rank as the chief port of the Far East, and transfer the commercial crown to one or other of the northern ports of China or Japan; this change, however, will be but relative, if it occur at all, for the new communications can hardly do otherwise than largely increase the traffic of which Hong Kong is now the centre.

Those who have watched the development of trade and travel consequent upon the opening of regular railway communication, even under circumstances apparently the most adverse, will hardly be surprised at any increase in volume or change in character which the Eastern trade may take on, as a consequence of the opening of the new highway across this continent. That articles will be interchanged heretofore unknown to this commerce, and by persons previously unfamiliar with its operations, is but the simplest form of the new growth. Things now regarded as curiosities or rare luxuries, much as sugar or tobacco in the times of Drake or Raleigh, will come to be staples common as those articles to-day. This is the history of all commerce.

Again, New York will soon cease to pass through her Custom-House the teas and spices consumed west of the Alleghanies. These must naturally come by rail from San Francisco, and with them products now unknown beyond the smell of salt water, or known only to be stared at.

West of the Rocky Mountains an immense area, quite uncultivated, but of fertility so fabulous that the mere statement of it excites a smile, certainly of surprise, perhaps of incredulity, and mines of precious metals and all useful minerals, whose mere surfaces have as yet been but irritated, invite all the starving population of the world to come and there find labor and its rewards. To China, with her dense population, estimated at four hundred million souls, and an inability to feed these numbers, so evident that, in spite of all the industry and frugality of her people, rebellions which are in fact only gigantic bread riots are chronic, and infanticide is common;—to China we naturally turn for the source whence this population is hereafter to be supplied. The demand and supply are separated only by the Pacific Ocean. This movement of population has already begun. The Chinese Government, which, in its care of its subjects, is notably the most paternal in the world, now recognises its interest in promoting the general welfare by encouraging and facilitating the emigration of its surplus numbers. In our own country, ignorance, always the most expensive of luxuries whether for individuals or nations, still opposes, with a bitterness which can only come from prejudice so born, the immigration of the Chinese on several pretexts, alleging that they are immoral people, an idle race, irreligious, and the like: all of which they are not. Noted for the practical morality which governs their lives, for their steady industry, for their rare frugality, these Chinese immigrants form the best laboring class that has come to the shores of America during this century. Their influence upon us, and ours upon them, for good or evil, must largely depend upon the spirit in which they are received; but however that may be, their coming, and in millions, is foredoomed by the unalterable conditions of the case, and can only be turned aside by staying the march of our material prosperity.

Thus a mighty empire bids fair to arise on the Pacific slope peopled by a new race or a new admixture of races. The commercial results must be obvious.

San Francisco will naturally become the great entrepot and depot for the greater and more valuable trade between the United States and China and Japan, which we have assumed will be carried on by steamers across the Pacific, and by rail or steamer between the Atlantic and Pacific States. Valuable goods of all kinds and all small shipments, such as are sent by express in this country, passing between Europe and the Far East, will be gradually diverted to this route as its advantages become known.

The exchange of precious metals, which now flow from their sources to London, as into a great reservoir, and thence to the various points of distribution in India, Egypt, China and elsewhere—will this be changed? When?

There is no natural reason why silver should be taken from the mines of Mexico or Peru by way of Panama to England for the purpose of being exported to China or India, now that a bridge has been thrown across the short gap that formerly separated producer from consumer. Shipped to San Francisco, it is in a few days within the control, by telegraph, of its actual or ultimate owner, the London banker. All exchange is finally a question of cost of transportation. Why should he pay a high freight to get it to a cheap market, when for a low freight he can in less time place it in a dear market? The conclusion is irresistible that all exchanges of the precious metals between Europe and America and China, Japan and India will converge at San Francisco, which will thus become the "centre" of these exchanges at least, if not indeed of those "of the world," as her more ardent citizens are wont to predict. "The centre of exchange of the world" is and must ever be where the commerce of the world settles its balances; in other words, where those balances can most conveniently be settled. Other elements than the most important one of facilities for frequent, rapid and reliable communication enter into this problem; chief of these is the possession of the accumulated capital by which that commerce is carried on. To-day London holds this golden master key, as Byzantium, Carthage, Venice, Lisbon once held it. Exchanges are settled in London for the same reason that a merchant does business in his own counting house. Whether this condition will be changed by the bodily transfer of the capital itself, or by the drying up of the sources of its growth in one place and their breaking forth afresh in another, it would be useless now to speculate. That the trade of America with the Far East will grow vastly in value and importance; that it will be mainly controlled at New York; that the race between New York and London for the first place will be hotly contested; so much seems clear.

THE BREADSTUFFS TRADE.

The recent general decline in the price of flour and grain is the result of considerations relating to the prospective harvest. There appears to be no dissent in any quarter to the conclusion that present prospects warrant lower prices for breadstuffs; there is, however, some difference of opinion as to what extent of decline may be reasonably expected. Present prices range 10@15 per cent lower on flour than at the beginning of the year, and on wheat $7\frac{1}{2}$ @ $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, while corn is about 25 per cent lower. For the purpose of illustrating the course of prices, from Jan. 1st

to the present time, we present the following comparative quotations of breadstuffs at New York at stated periods :

PRICES OF BREADSTUFFS AT NEW YORK.

	Jan. 7, 1868.	April 24, 1868.	June 19, 1868.
Flour, Superfine..... per bbl.....	\$8 60@ 9 40	\$9 40@10 00	\$7 25@ 8 25
Extra State.....	10 10@10 85	10 35@10 85	8 25@ 9 75
Shipping R. hoop Ohio.....	10 25@11 00	10 50@10 90	9 00@ 9 85
Double Ex. West. & St. Louis.....	12 50@16 00	11 75@16 00	9 75@14 50
Southern supers.....	10 75@11 60	10 40@11 15	9 35@11 10
California.....	12 50@13 75	12 75@14 50	10 50@13 00
Wheat, Spring..... per bush.....	2 30@ 2 50	2 45@ 2 63	2 12@ 2 28
Red Winter.....	2 65@ 2 75	@ 2 85	2 50@ 2 55
Amber Winter.....	2 80@ 2 85	2 90@ 3 00	2 60@ 2 70
White.....	2 80@ 3 25	3 00@ 3 40	2 85@ 2 80
Corn, Western mixed.....	1 38@ 1 44	1 16@ 1 19	1 06@ 1 08
Southern white.....	1 35@ 1 45	1 14@ 1 16	1 14@ 1 16
Rye.....	1 70@ 1 80	2 05@ 2 35	1 96@ 2 05
Oats, Western cargoes.....	84½@ 87	85@ 87	82½@ 83½
Barley.....	1 80@ 2 10	2 10@ 2 35	2 20@ 2 40

Considering that, at the beginning of the year, stocks at New York were unusually light, owing to the premature closing of the canals, and also the consequent locking up of a large quantity of grain, which at that time gave a factitious firmness to the market, the decline can hardly be considered an unwarranted one. The receipts at this port since January 1st have been unusually large. How they compare with these for the same period of last year appears from the following statement:

RECEIPTS OF BREADSTUFFS AT NEW YORK FROM JAN. 1 TO JUNE 19.

	1867.	1868.	Increase*
Flour.....	644,135	956,970	312,835
Corn meal.....	136,720	178,255	41,535
Wheat.....	693,145	3,749,005	3,035,860
Corn.....	2,803,115	7,425,885	4,622,770
Rye.....	36,220	208,450	172,230
Barley, &c.....	273,960	693,650	419,690
Oats.....	780,350	2,107,195	1,326,845

The export movement has of course taken off a large amount of this liberal supply. The shipments from this port from Jan. 1 to June 19, compare as follows with those of the same period of 1867:

EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS FROM NEW YORK, FROM JAN. 1 TO JUNE 19TH.

	1867.	1868.	
Flour, bbls.....	202,904	381,913	Inc.. 179,049
Corn meal, bbls.....	78,274	94,747	Inc.. 6,473
Wheat, bush.....	37,549	2,624,524	Inc.. 2,586,975
Rye, bush.....	136,887	153,993	Inc.. 16,106
Barley, bush.....	860,217		
Oats, bush.....	124,758	28,943	Dec. 85,815
Corn, bush.....	4,084,584	3,647,856	Dec. 436,678

It will be seen from a comparison of the two tables, that the increase in the exports is not at all equal to the gain in the receipts. We have received of flour 312,835 bbls. more than in 1867, and have shipped only 179,049 more than then; of wheat our receipts are 3,035,860 bushels more, and our exports 2,586,975 more; of corn we have received

4,622,770 bushels more, and have shipped 436,678 less; while our receipts of oats are 1,326,845 bushels more, and our exports 85,815 less. It is true that at the beginning of the year stocks were unusually low, and that a large amount of this supply has been required for making up that deficiency; but the fact nevertheless remains that, so far as respects the movement at the principal grain port of the country, the supply available for home consumption shows a very large gain upon last year. A similar increase of receipts is apparent at the lake ports, as will appear from the following comparison:

RECEIPTS OF FLOUR AND GRAIN AT THE LAKE PORTS, FROM JAN. 1ST TO JUNE 13, FOR FOUR YEARS.

	1868.	1867.	1866.	1865.
Flour, bbls.....	1,517,497	1,227,030	1,433,368	961,803
Wheat, bush.....	6,889,448	4,104,548	8,065,200	7,244,604
Corn, bush.....	23,112,439	10,986,011	13,324,081	6,236,380
Oats, bush.....	4,109,264	2,792,985	5,514,911	4,549,297
Barley, bush.....	391,936	522,382	324,055	440,983
Rye, bush.....	190,008	453,249	683,232	246,764
Total grain, bush.....	24,693,095	18,865,175	27,910,509	18,717,978

It is thus seen that the arrivals at the interior grain ports are about 6,000,000 bushels in excess of those of either 1867 or 1865, and a little over 3,000,000 bushels below those of 1866. The stocks at Chicago has been reduced to a comparatively low point, especially those of corn and oats; and the arrivals at the lake ports now show a material falling off, but, considering that we are close upon harvest, and that the stocks on the seaboard are comparatively ample, this consideration can hardly be allowed much weight as an argument in favor of a firm market. Taking into view all the circumstances relating to the home visible supply and to export, the late decline in prices can hardly be regarded as precipitate or unfounded.

The prospect of the supply from the approaching harvest is unusually flattering. In all parts of the United States the weather has been highly favorable to the growing crops. In some sections there has been too much rain for the corn, and farmers have had to resort to a second planting; but, even as respects this crop, there is no apparent reason for doubting that the yield will be fully up to the average. The Western States have doubtless planted fully up to their capacity; and nature has seconded their efforts with more than ordinary beneficence. The Southern States, discouraged by the poor results of the last cotton crop, have somewhat increased their production of cereals, to the growth of which an unusually moist condition of the atmosphere has been peculiarly favorable, so that there will probably be a moderate surplus in that section available for export or for consumption in other districts. The reports

from California are equally encouraging. The late high prices realized on grain, and the favor with which California wheat is received in the Liverpool market, have encouraged a large extension of wheat growing in that State. The weather also, as elsewhere, has proved propitious, and, according to the latest reports, the crop is likely to exceed that of last year by one third. In connection with the home supply of breadstuffs however, it is important to keep in mind that there is considerable danger, that the potato crop will prove a failure on the Eastern seaboard, a fact which must be allowed due weight in estimating the future value of grain.

The crop accounts from Europe also encourage the expectation of an unusually abundant wheat crop. With no one exception of moment the weather has been highly favorable to the growth and healthy condition of the crops. In England, the period for ploughing and sowing, both in the Fall and the Spring, is admitted to have been unprecedented, while the mild Winter was favorable to a healthy and vigorous growth of the plant, so that it would require unusually bad weather to spoil the present prospects of an abundant yield. The "blooming" season comes in at about this time, and much must depend on the character of the weather at that period, which, at the latest advices, was very favorable. In France, the harvest is already in progress in the Southern districts, with every prospect of at least an average yield. In Algeria, the crop has been already harvested and proves remarkably good, so that, instead of importing, as last year, that country will probably have a surplus to send to the French market. In Egypt, the grain crops no longer suffer from the diversion of agriculture to cotton growing, and this year's wheat crop is unusually abundant. The reports from the Danube districts are as yet somewhat meagre, and the same may be said of Prussia; but, so far as they go, they are entirely satisfactory, and indicate the probability of a yield fully equal to, if not in excess of that of last year.

As a general result, then, it may be said that the world's crops, in their growing condition, promise a larger yield than last year. There yet remains the harvest, however, with all its contingencies and adverse possibilities. The dangers of blight and excessive rains have yet to be encountered, and, until these liabilities have been passed, no safe calculations can be made as to the result. Even assuming, however, that the harvest should prove as favorable as the growing season, it would be rash to jump to the conclusion that we must therefore return to old prices for breadstuffs. Stocks have been depleted by three years of deficient crops, and it may be safely assumed that stocks are now everywhere below the old average. There are indications that in this respect there has been considerable recovery effected within the past few months so far as the receiving ports are concerned. At the leading Western

cities, stocks are generally larger than at the same period of last year, and in the New York ware houses we hold about one million bushels more than a year ago. The imports of wheat into the United Kingdom, from January 1st to May 30th, are 8,000,000 cwts. more than for the same months of 1867; the arrivals at Belgium are 25 per cent. larger, and at the ports of Western Europe generally the receipts are much above those of last year. These facts would indicate that some gain has been made in stocks at the receiving ports from the generally abundant harvest of last year; but the amount in farmers' hands the world over was never lower, with the one exception of last year, so that it will require an ample surplus from the harvest of 1868 to bring up the world's stocks to near their former condition. This being the case, it would seem probable that the trade will wait to ascertain, first the effect of this year's crop upon stocks, and next as to whether the crops of 1869 are likely to sustain the recovered position, before assenting to the return of old prices for breadstuffs.

THE NATIONAL BOARD OF TRADE.

One of the marked characteristics of the present day is the recognition and employment as never before of the uses of organization and association in efforts for the advancement of morals, of the sciences, and of commerce.

Under various conditions, merchants have long been accustomed to maintain more or less closely defined personal relations with each other. Very early in the history of commerce they saw the advantage, if not the necessity, of meeting together at stated times for the interchange of intelligence, for the consummation of bargains, and for the regulation of matters in which they had a common concern. Five hundred years before the Christian era Rome had its Collegium Mercatorum, or Exchange; and in every emporium of trade from that day to the present there has been some central place in which merchants have been wont to congregate. During the middle ages companies were formed for carrying on foreign traffic, and for the promotion of particular branches of industry at home. Their members were united by identity of interest, but they were few in number, and circumscribed in purpose. Both the exchange and the trading company still exist, although under somewhat modified forms. Comparing the two, we might say that the one shows us an aggregation of units, the other a compacted society; in the one, each man is left free to pursue his own plans in his own way, in the other a selected few are united in joint efforts in behalf of a special object; in the one, no attempt is made to limit

or check the intensity of individual action, in the other, the energies and the resources of individuals are concentrated, and thus rendered the more effective in competition with those not embraced in the membership. Between them is the Chamber of Commerce, or popular Board of Trade, an institution which, while it discourages isolation and exclusiveness, makes no interference with personality; while it brings individuals together, associates them for the general benefit; while it fosters enterprise, presents no restrictions as to either its method or its scope. The value of the Exchange cannot be called in question; and trading corporations were especially useful, when capital was scarce, and the broad field of commercial endeavor lay almost entirely uncultivated and untried; but it must be admitted that a local organization seeking to develop the social principle, comprising the representatives of varied branches of industry, furnishing opportunity for those engaged in one pursuit, to become acquainted with the facts relating to every other, and inspiring all its members with the impulses of a common purpose for the attainment of a common good, possesses advantages and gives promise of an influence, such as are not to be found in the others, which, for the sake of illustration, we have placed in juxtaposition with it.

Chambers of Commerce were first established early in the eighteenth century in some of the leading cities of France, and soon appeared in other European countries. The New York Chamber is the oldest in the United States, having been organized in 1768. Its objects and advantages are well stated in the preamble to its register of proceedings: "Whereas, mercantile societies have been found very useful in trading cities for promoting and encouraging commerce, supporting industry, adjusting disputes relative to trade and navigation, and procuring such laws and regulations as may be found necessary for the benefit of trade in general, &c." With the growth of the country it has been seen to be desirable to establish many similar institutions; and, under the various names of Board of Trade, Chamber of Commerce, Commercial Association, or Produce Exchange, they have a recognized position in all the chief centres of trade. Differing from each other in particulars of administration, as well as in name, they are substantially alike in their purposes and aims, and they could all adopt the language of the merchants of New York of a century ago, in defining what these are intended to be.

But commerce is not local, either in its activities or in its relations; and these organizations, designed to promote the advantage of the different communities in which they exist, have come to understand that they can render essential service to each other both by word and by act, and that, especially in reference to questions of national importance, they can cooperate together, with promise of immense benefit to all concerned. These

boards and chambers began their intercourse by correspondence, and by the interchange of resolutions and recommendations. It was then proposed to bring them together in convention, and in 1865 a meeting was held at Detroit, attended by delegates from twenty-eight mercantile associations of the United States, and fifteen of British North America. This was the first occasion when these bodies, in their distinctive capacity, were represented in convention, and the experiment was quite successful. In February of the present year a second general meeting, limited to the boards of trade in the United States, was held in Boston, and it was then determined to bring these commercial organizations to a permanent connection with each other, by means of a board in which they should be the constituent members, which should hold regular meetings, and which, through its executive officers, should give constant and careful attention to the general industrial interests of the country. This, in brief, will explain the origin of the National Board of Trade, which was formed by delegates duly appointed for the purpose (representing thirty-two commercial bodies, and twenty States of the Union), on the 5th of June, 1868, in the City of Philadelphia.

We propose to explain the objects, the organization, and the plans of this National Board.

I. The declaration, which precedes the constitution of the board, makes its objects to be three-fold; to promote the efficiency and extend the usefulness of the local boards of trade and chambers of commerce; to secure harmony and unity of action in reference to commercial usages, customs, and laws, and to secure the proper consideration of questions pertaining to the financial, commercial, and industrial interests of the country. It is not intended that the National Board shall undertake to perform any of the functions properly pertaining to the local boards, or that it shall in any degree obviate the necessity for their existence or efficiency; on the contrary, it is designed to quicken the activity of each of these, by furnishing a broad channel through which its energy and influence can be directed, and by seconding and sustaining whatever efforts it may be making for the public good. It will give assurance to each that, however remote it may be from the older and more densely settled portions of the country, and however limited in its local influence, it does not stand alone, and it is not working by itself. It will place the various boards in intimate and fraternal relations with each other, and will be a medium of communication between them. With whatever is strictly local, or sectional, or special, it will have nothing whatever to do. All that the boards can or should themselves undertake it will not interfere with, but all such matters as do not exclusively pertain to any one of them, and such as require the assistance of more than one in their adjustment, will legitimately fall within its

sphere. It will not only enable the boards to compare views, but it will promote accordance in these views, and will give emphasis to their expression. Hence the facility with which it may be expected to secure unity in commercial customs and laws throughout the country. Its membership will embrace every section, and its discussions will take every peculiarity of usage or statute into the account; its deliberate recommendations, therefore, will carry a *quasi* authority with them to a very considerable and influential number of our business men, and a weight such as sound judgment and ripe experience always command to all. So also, in reference to the financial, commercial and industrial interests of the United States, in their broadest relations; its plan of organization will qualify it to indicate some of the methods by which these interests may be developed in harmony with each other, and consistently with the rights and the necessities of every State and of every community.

II. This leads us to notice one or two of the more important features in the constitution of the National Board of Trade. And, first, its members are not individuals, but associations; and its proceedings, therefore, will be carried on by delegates, who will act not on their own responsibility simply, but with accountability to those by whom they are appointed. Each association having fifty voting members, will be entitled to one delegate; having one hundred members, two delegates; having three hundred members, three delegates; having four hundred members, four delegates; and for each additional five hundred members one additional delegate. These delegates will not be justified in seeking to enforce their own opinions, excepting as these shall have been approved by the bodies to which they belong; and they will be precluded from advocating measures in which they may have a personal interest, excepting as these shall have received a similar sanction. In this way the National Board is to be protected against abuse from those who would employ it to subserve private ends. Then, secondly, pains have been taken to guard against efforts to make it the agent for advancing special interests. Such bodies only are eligible to membership in it, as are duly chartered under State or national laws, and are organized for "general commercial, and not for special or private purposes." Associations have recently been formed in the interest of the shipbuilders, the shipowners the cotton manufacturers, the wool growers, the wool manufacturers, and other classes of business men, and there is a work for each of these to perform, valuable to the class which it represents and useful to the country. But to give these special interests representation in a board formed to consider and advance the industry of the nation in its completeness and totality, would not only introduce discord and confusion, but would defeat the purposes for which the board was organized. The delegate, for

example, from the shipbuilders, would consider every question in its bearings upon shipbuilding; the delegate from the woolen manufacturers would weigh every consideration against the supposed requirements of fabrics in wool, and so on; each would be expected to do this; it would be made his duty to do this. But these interests, with others, are already strongly represented in the various local boards; the shipbuilders, at Portland; the manufacturers of cotton and woolen goods, at Boston and Providence; the shipowners and importers, at New York; the iron and coal masters, at Philadelphia; and the produce trade, in all its branches, at each of the large cities west and east. These interests are fully and adequately represented therefore in the National Board; but they are represented in their relations to the whole country, and to every branch of industry in it, and not in their more restricted and special aspects. Even in the local boards, the individual members are called upon, if not to forget their particular avocations, at least to remember those of their associates, and to subordinate private and personal considerations to the harmoniously adjusted claims of the whole community. How much more absolutely indispensable is it, that such a spirit should prevail in a national board; and that it will do so, there is substantial ground for hope, because the business men of the country have become in some degree prepared for its exercise, by the training they have received in the local organizations. In these they have learned to look beyond their own circle; they have been taught conciliation and concession; they have been liberalized; and they are beginning to understand both the strength and the value of the interdependence which subsists between all the various branches of human industry. They will now be obliged to take one step further; they must be ready to subordinate not only self, but class and locality and section to the general good. The scope of the new board, as its name indicates, is national; if it is not this, it is nothing. As already intimated, it cannot undertake to concern itself with purely local matters, or to promote the advancement of any particular craft or calling; all these it must regard as "parts of one stupendous whole," and must deal with them in their complex yet balanced relations.

The meetings of the National Board of Trade are to be held annually, on the first Wednesday in December, and at other times as may be necessary. They are not to be confined to any one city. It is not intended to originate business at these meetings. Except by a two-thirds vote of the delegates in attendance, no subject can be considered which has not been submitted by one or more of the constituent bodies, and notified to all, through the Secretary, at least thirty days beforehand. This provision will save much time, and will tend to prevent crude and partial action. There need be no apprehension that the National Board

will not have business enough before it; the danger is much more imminent that the calls upon its attention will be too numerous, and, in consequence, that its influence will be scattered and weakened. Nor need it be feared that too long an interval will be likely to elapse before final action can be reached by it. If its judgments are to be sustained by the concurrent convictions of the merchants of the country, and especially if they are to have any effect upon our national legislation, they must be carefully formed and deliberately taken.

The officers of the Board are a President (Mr. Frederick Fraley, of Philadelphia), a Secretary and Treasurer (Mr. Hamilton A. Hill, of Boston), and an executive council of fourteen, the members of which are Vice-Presidents of the Board. This council will probably meet three or four times during the year, and is required to submit a report of its official acts, and to make suggestions and recommendations to the Board at its annual meetings.

III. The plans by which the National Board of Trade proposes to secure the objects for which it has been organized, have not as yet been fully matured. These objects themselves, are quite general, and the purpose has been to make the method of operation simple, to have as little machinery in the constitution as possible, and to allow the institution to take its precise shape according to the development of circumstances. For the present it will not adopt a local habitation or open central offices. It may be desirable, however, before very long, to collect a library, and to accumulate commercial information in the shape of maps, charts, reports and pamphlets; and then a permanent abode will be necessary. Whether it will attempt the collection of statistics, will depend upon the degree of improvement which the Federal Government shall make, in this department of the Treasury service. Hitherto, governmental statistics in the United States have been unworthy of absolute reliance, and therefore, have been altogether unsatisfactory to business men. It remains to be seen whether changes recently made at Washington, will lead to a more favorable result; if not, it will be the duty of this National Board to undertake what the Government ought to do, and ought to do well, and what with proper care, it can do in a manner better than could be expected from any private association. In Great Britain the system pursued by the government for the compilation of statistical information, is most thorough and complete; and, consequently, the Association of Chambers of Commerce there, does not find itself called upon to assume any part of that important duty.

The executive officers of the Board will prepare business for the annual meetings; and they will carry into effect whatever decisions may have been reached at these meetings, which, for the present, will be the most

important feature in the operations of the Board. Everything, however, will depend upon the care and discretion with which the constituent bodies shall select their delegates. They should send only men of approved ability and integrity, men of large views, of patriotic impulses and of liberal tendencies, men who will have no political or otherwise personal aspirations to gratify, and who will thus be qualified to deal with national interests in a broad, national spirit. The nation in this crisis, needs the counsel and the cooperation of just such men as these, true representatives of the commercial class, who are eminently fitted by their training, by their experience and by their position, to grapple with the economical and the financial problems which are now pressing upon us for a satisfactory solution. Certainly, the formation of the National Board of Trade could not have been more appropriately and fortunately timed; and we sincerely hope that its usefulness will prove to be as far reaching and as permanent, as the auspicious circumstances amid which it has, entered upon its work, would seem beforehand to promise.

INTERNATIONAL COINAGE.*

In June last, while the Universal Exposition was in progress, an international monetary conference was held in Paris, under the presidency of the French minister for foreign affairs. Delegates from the several European nations were present. Mr. Samuel B. Ruggles represented the United States, and his report on the subject has been communicated to Congress, through the Department of State. From this it appears that a plan of monetary unification was there agreed upon, the general features of which are:

1. A single standard, exclusively of gold.
2. Coins of equal weight and diameter.
3. Of equal quality, nine-tenths fine.
4. The weight of the present five-franc gold piece to be the unit, with its multiples. The issue by France of a new coin of the value and weight of 25 francs was recommended.
5. The coins of each nation to continue to bear the names and emblems preferred by each, but to be legal tenders, public and private, in all.

Senate bill 217 is designed to carry into effect this plan. Its passage would reduce the weight of our gold coin of \$5 so as to agree with a French coin of 25 francs. It determines that other sizes and denomina-

* Report of Mr. Morgan, from the Senate Committee on Finance.

tions shall be in due proportion of weight and fineness; and that foreign gold coin, conformed to this basis, shall be a legal tender, so long as the standard of weight and fineness are maintained. It requires that the value of gold coins shall be stated both in dollars and francs, and also in British terms, whenever Great Britain shall conform the pound sterling to the piece of \$5.

It conforms our silver coinage to the French valuation, and discontinues the silver pieces of one dollar, and five and three cents, and limits silver as a legal tender to payments of \$10. The first of January, 1869, is fixed as the period for the act to take effect.

The reduction which this measure would effect in the present legal standard value of the gold coin of the United States would be at the rate of three and a-half dollars in the hundred, and the reduction in the legal value of our silver coinage would be still more considerable.

A change in our national coinage so grave as that proposed by the bill should be made only after the most mature deliberation. The circulating medium is a matter that directly concerns the affairs of every-day life, affecting not only the varied, intricate and multiform interests of the people at home, to the minutest detail, but the relations of the nation with all other countries as well. The United States has a peculiar interest in such a question. It is a principal producer of the precious metals, and its geographical position, most favorable in view of impending commercial changes, renders it wise that we should be in no haste to fetter ourselves by any new international regulation based on an order of things belonging essentially to the past.

Antecedent to any action by Congress on this subject we should carefully consider:

I. The effect which the present abundant production of the precious metals, especially of gold, and the probable great increase in the supply, as mining facilities are improved and more generally applied, will have upon the purchasing power of these metals.

II. The question of preserving such a relation between gold and silver as will retain the latter metal in free circulation, and continuance of the coinage of such denominations of silver as will serve to encourage American commerce with Mexico and with South American and Asiatic nations.

III. The choice of a standard of unification which, all things considered, shall be least objectionable on account of fractional weights and intricacy of calculations.

IV. Of delaying action until the Paris plan has been adopted by the commercial powers of Europe, and accepted by those nations on the western continent with whom we have commercial relations; or at least until their intentions in this regard are more fully known.

V. Should not a period when the public mind is calm, more so than now, on the subject of monetary affairs, and when the national debt has become less formidable, be chosen for initiating a change?

VI. The advisability of further popular discussion of the subject, to the end that the business as well as general public shall fully understand on what grounds so important a reduction in the value of our monetary unit, the dollar, is based, and the further advocacy of the merits of our own, so that, should any existing system be accepted, ours shall be more fully considered in that connection.

Uniformity in coinage and also in weights and measures has been the pursuit of ages. Speculative systems have been advanced, only to be given up when subjected to practical tests, but the idea has never been abandoned. Nor was the recent occasion the first in which our government has been recommended, and that, too, with some urgency, three-quarters of a century ago, by the minister of that country, to adopt the French system of weights, measures, and coinage. But Congress, both then and since, has properly exercised great caution on a subject so full of complications. And the question of international unification yet remains an open one, balanced between the facilities it would afford to foreign commerce and the evils it would introduce into our domestic affair. The adoption of some satisfactory and comprehensive plan, one to be adopted because it shall best subserve the interests of all, and not because it is or is not an existing one, may become desirable. If so, Congress will then be ready to take part in effecting such a measure. At present, however, there are questions of a very practical nature relative to the precious metals, that begin to reveal themselves, and will soon press home upon us, which largely outweigh in importance the more theoretical one of assimilating all metallic circulations. Our situation as a commercial nation makes it prudent that on this, as on every question affecting home interests, we shall remain free to mould our policy to meet occasions as they arise, following such course as shall appear best suited to develop our great, almost limitless, natural resources, increasing by "gentle means the stream of commerce, but forcing nothing, rather than to hamper ourselves by international engagements or arbitrary regulations. An error now in fixing the values of gold and silver would injure this nation far more than any other. We may safely trust to the natural laws of commerce for the correction of any evils from which we have suffered. We have paid our seigniorage, we have met the demand for foreign exchange, but who shall say that the course of trade in the next ten years may not make an American city, New York or San Francisco, the centre of exchange, and confer upon us the advantages so long enjoyed by European capital? Certainly no other nation can so well afford to wait.

The movement proposed in the bill appears to be in the wrong direction. The standard value of gold coin should be increased—brought up to our own, rather than lowered. The reason must be obvious. Authorities unite in the conclusion that a fall in the value of precious metals, in consequence of their rapidly increasing quantity, is inevitable. M. Chevalier recently estimated that the present yield of gold amounts, in ten years, to about as much as the entire production during the 356 years which intervened between the date of the discovery of America and the year 1846, when the mines of California were found; and Mr. Cobden concluded that unless the cardinal rule of commerce, that quantity governs price, which applies infallibly to all other commodities, loses its force when gold is concerned, this continued and great increase must be followed by a reduction in its value.

Ross Browne, in his recent report, says that the time is not far distant when the price of the precious metals, as compared with other proceeds of human labor, must fall. "They are now increasing more rapidly than is the demand for them, and at the present rate of increase they would soon have to fall perceptibly; but the production will become much greater than it is. The vast improvements that have been made both in gold and silver mining, within the last twenty years, are applied only to a few mines. * * * If all the argentiferous lodes of Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia, known to be rich, were worked with the machinery used at Washoe, their yield would really flood the world. * * * New deposits of silver will be found, and innumerable rich lodes on the Pacific slope of the United States, not yet opened, will be worked with profit."

The present enhanced prices of commodities and labor, the world over, measures, to some extent, the increasing quantity and consequent depreciation in the value of precious metals, and clearly indicates the direction the change is taking.

The creditor, public and private, will be affected by this tendency, and while he must abide a depreciation which proceeds from natural causes, he may properly insist that artificial evils shall not be superadded.

Of the increased production of gold the United States supplies more than half, and when the lines of railway now pushing across the continent shall penetrate the gold bearing mountains and valleys of California and Oregon, and the western territories, mining improvements will be powerfully supplemented.

The American continent, too, produces four-fifths of the silver of commerce. The mines of Nevada have already taken high rank, and Mexico alone supplies more than half the world's grand total. Our relations with the silver-producing people, geographically most favorable, are otherwise intimate. Manifestly our business intercourse with them can be

largely increased, a fact especially true of Mexico, which, for well-known political reasons, seeks the friendliest understanding. This must not be overlooked.

These two streams of the precious metals, poured into the current of commerce in full volume, will produce perturbations marked and important. Other countries will be affected, but the United States will feel the effect first and more directly than any other.

The Pacific railway will open to us the trade of China, Japan, India, and other Oriental countries, of whose prepossessions we must not lose sight. For years, silver, for reasons not fully understood, has been the object of unusual demand among these Asiatic nations, and now forms the almost universal medium of circulation, absorbing rapidly the silver of coinage. The erroneous proportion fixed between silver and gold by France, and which we are asked to copy, is denuding that country of the former metal. Our own monetary system, though less faulty, is not suitably adjusted in this respect. The silver dollar, for instance, a favorite coin of the native Indian and distant Asiatic, has well-nigh disappeared from domestic circulation, to reappear among the eastern peoples, with whom we more than ever seek close intimacy. As they prefer this piece we would do well to increase rather than discontinue its coinage, for we must not deprive ourselves of the advantages which its agency will afford, and "it would be useless to send dollars to Asia inferior in weight and value to its well-known Spanish and Mexican prototype."

Mr. Ruggles says that nearly all the silver coined in the United States prior to 1858 has disappeared. A remedy is not to be found in the adoption of a system that undervalues this metal, for that commodity like any other, shuns the market where not taken at its full value to find the more favorable one. It is a favorite metal, entering into all transactions of daily life, and deserves proper recognition in any monetary system.

It is said that "to promote the intercourse of nations with each other, uniformity of weights, coins, and measures of capacity is among the most efficacious agencies." Our weights, coins, and measures now correspond much more nearly to the English than to the French standard. Our commerce with Great Britain is nine times greater than with France, and if the former does not adopt the Paris system of coinage—and we have no assurance that she will—the United States would certainly commit a serious error in passing this bill. No argument is needed to enforce this. And what of the rising communities? A properly adjusted coinage would stimulate commerce with those great parts of the continent lying south and southwest of us, with the West Indies, and the countless millions of trans-Pacific countries. We stand midway on the thoroughfare of traffic between these two widely-separated races. Our railways, canals,

our natural highways, and merchant marine may be made to control their carrying trade. But here, as everywhere else, a well-adjusted coinage becomes a wand of power in the hand of enterprise. Tokens are not wanting to mark the favor in which the United States are now held by China. The unusual honor recently conferred by that government upon a citizen of this country was not alone because of his fitness as an ambassador at large, but was a mark as well of a friendly disposition towards this country. Future harmony of intercourse is assured, too, by their adoption as a text-book in diplomatic correspondence of a leading American authority on international law. Much might also be said about the growing partiality of Japan towards this country; but it is enough that the recent opening of certain ports indicates an enlightened change in the policies of these two old empires, of which commerce, especially our own is availing itself. There is nothing, indeed, in our foreign policy to create suspicion in the minds of the cautious statesmen of Asia. We are non-aggressive; our vast domain leaves no motive for conquest; but, on the other hand, our fertile, unpeopled territory invites settlers, and our mines and the demand for labor on the Pacific slope are rapidly drawing thitherward from Asia an increasing tide of emigration, aiding not only in peopling that region, but in establishing closer relations as well between individuals as a more liberal commerce between the nations.

Referring to the third inquiry, it may be asked, should a new standard be adopted, is the French system more suitable for us than our own?

Doubtless the French system "embraces all the great and important principles of uniformity which can be applied to weights and measures, (and coins as well,) but it is not yet complete. It is susceptible of many modifications and improvements." And it is not inconsistent with the respect held toward so exalted a power as France, briefly for us to examine somewhat more closely certain features of this question. We are producers; France, Belgium, Switzerland, and Italy, (who have adopted the system,) are non-producers, of the precious metals, and, therefore, while adding little to the common stock of material for metallic currency, are not affected like us by an increase in gold and silver. Nor are they likely to be influenced as we are to be, by other coming changes. Neither is there anything in the financial or commercial status of France which entitles her monetary scheme to a preference over all others in fixing a common coinage, unless, in itself, it is superior to all others. This, in a practical sense, is not the fact. Writers represent it as surrounded with difficulties, and an eminent French author calls it "the worst of all systems." Its basis is arbitrary, and the ratio it observes between gold and silver—one of gold for $15\frac{1}{2}$ of silver by *weight*, but one to 14 38-100 in *value*—is a confession of the erroneousness of the plan. In theory, her

coinage is metrical, and yet it is said that France has not, nor never has had, a gold coin containing an even number of grams; or, practically, it is unmetrical.

The bill proposes 1,612.9 milligrams, or $24\frac{89}{100}$ grains, for the gold dollar. If adopted, and we should still give to our silver dollar a weight and value equal to the Mexican dollar, 416 grains, we should establish a ratio of value of gold to silver of $16\frac{7}{10}$ to one, while 15 to one is as high as it would be safe to go, and where, indeed, our own standard places it. "If we consent to reduce our gold dollar as proposed by the Paris conference to 24.89 grains, we could not possibly coin a silver dollar that would be of any use to us in commerce," for we should increase rather than diminish the weight of the gold dollar.

On the subject of the French monetary unit Mr. Dunning, Superintendent of the United States Assay Office, in New York, a competent authority, says:

The present weight of the gold five-franc piece is not justified by any scientific reasons better than the mathematical accident that 620 of them weigh exactly a kilogram, a circumstance which has not the slightest practical importance. The fact is, this fractional and inconvenient weight, which the world is invited to adopt, was not fixed upon by the French themselves by design, but as the unavoidable result of a false theory.

Further, that after having fixed the ratio of gold as one to $15\frac{1}{2}$, and having adjusted the weight of their silver coins in integral numbers—

"They were compelled to accept for the five-franc gold piece the interminable decimal resulting from the division of 25 grams by 15.5, viz.: 1.61290322580645. The awkwardness and inconvenience of this weight," he adds, "can be best shown by giving the weight of a few of the gold coins of France, Great Britain, and the United States, as they will be if the proposed unit is adopted." (See accompanying tables.)

Mr. Dunning recommended for consideration a monetary unit of 1620 milligrams, for which he claims greater facility of making calculation than that proposed by the conference, and that it is also a compromise between the French and English coin weights, and would require a reduction on our own dollar of half a cent less than by the plan proposed in the bill. Mr. Dubois, assistant assayer of the Philadelphia mint, concurs in the views of Mr. Dunning.

Other considerations aside, it may be said that until the leading nations represented at the Paris conference shall adopt a plan of unification, Congress may very properly decline to act; for anticipatory legislation, while disturbing relations existing between debtor and creditor, would accomplish no practical end. Mexico would not be partial to the French system, and Canada cannot be expected to accept it until its adoption by England. Unification, to be desirable, must be universal. Unless its advantages are

palpable to commercial people of Europe, occupying contiguous territories, and whose intercommunication is constant, it cannot be of serious moment to us, to whom the change would be of but comparative usefulness.

It has been urged as a reason for the early passage of a law to unify coinages, that commercial transactions with Europe would be facilitated thereby; and also that citizens of our country, in visiting Great Britain and the continent, would be spared losses and annoyances if we possessed uniformity. But it should be recollected that, in all large commercial transactions, gold coin is accounted by weight and not by tale—a proceeding more speedy and equally just; and of the moneys used abroad by travellers from this country, probably more than 90 per cent is carried in bills of exchange, a mode much safer and more convenient to the traveller, and which would be continued even if the bill became a law. The British delegates at the Paris meeting stated that, “until it should be incontestably demonstrated that the adoption of a new system offered superior advantages, justifying the abandonment of that which was approved by experience and rooted in the habits of the people, the British government could not take the initiative in assimilating its money with that of the nations of the continent.”

A period of suspension of specie payment like the present, it has been stated, is a favorable one for inaugurating the change proposed by the bill. But the juncture is one marked by great differences of opinion in respect to the question of circulation, return to specie payments, and the public finances as a whole. A change in the value of coinage would but add to the embarrassments of the situation, and it may be remarked incidentally that the reduction of the legal value of the dollar would inure largely to the benefit of speculators in gold and hoarders of the precious metals, a fact that might seriously prejudice the measure in public estimation.

If the nation were comparatively free from debt, Congress might with more propriety consider the question of changing the legal standard of coin; but one effect of reducing it as now proposed would be to deprive the public creditor of nearly a hundred million dollars of his rightful due. In the estimation of the committee such a proposition ought not to be entertained by Congress. It is proper here to say that the delegate, Mr. Ruggles, who favors unification, has at no time thought it just to lower the value of our coin without making proper allowance to the holder of the several forms of national obligations.

To be acceptable a change in our coinage must be a thing of clearly obvious advantage and proceed from the people. There has, however, been no popular expression in favor of the proposed plan, nor, indeed, any voluntary action in that direction whatever on the part of financial men,

either in this country or elsewhere. If there has been any complaint in regard to our monetary system, the fact has not come to the knowledge of your committee. On the other hand, certain scientific bodies in our country have already protested against any ill-considered change in the present American dollar. Our coinage is believed to be the simplest of any in circulation, and every way satisfactory for purposes of domestic commerce; it possesses special merits of every-day value, and should not, for light reasons, be exchanged where the advantages sought to be gained are mainly theoretical, engaging more properly the attention of the philosopher than the practical man. The instincts of our people lead them to believe that we are on the eve of important business changes, and we may therefore safely hold fast for the present to what experience has proven to be good, following only where clear indications may lead, and a future of great prosperity opens to our country. The war gave us self-assertion of character, and removed many impediments to progress; it also proved our ability to originate means to ends. Its expensive lesson will be measurably lost if it fails to impress upon us the fact that we have a distinctive American policy to work out, one sufficiently free from the traditions of Europe to be suited to our peculiar situation and the genius of our enterprising countrymen. The people of the United States have been quick to avail themselves of their natural advantages. The public lands, not only, and the mines of precious metals, but our political institutions, have likewise powerfully operated in our favor, and will continue to do so with increasing force.

Unification of the coinage, like all similar questions, should be taken up without bias and considered on the broad ground of national interest. At the proper time, when the country is restored to a normal financial condition, and the public ask a change in this regard, it may be well to appoint a commission of experts, carefully to consider the question in its various bearings. Reflection and further observation here and elsewhere may suggest the foundations for a better and more enduring system than the one now proposed, which in the nature of things is but a provisional one. Permanency is equally important with uniformity in our coinage.

John Quincy Adams, who spent several years in studying the question of uniformity in weights and measures, and incidentally in that of coinage—indeed, the latter cannot be separated from the other two—says:

If there be one conclusion more clear than another, deducible from all the history of mankind, it is the danger of hasty and inconsiderate legislation upon weights and measures. From this conviction the result of all inquiry is, that, while all the existing systems of metrology very imperfect and susceptible of improvements, involving in no small degree the virtue and happiness of future ages; while the impression of this truth is profoundly and almost universally felt by the wise and powerful of the most enlightened nations of the globe; while the spirit of improvement is operating with an ardor, perseverance and zeal, honorable to the human character, it is yet

certain that, for the successful termination of all these labors, and the final accomplishment of the glorious object, permanent and universal uniformity, legislation is not alone competent. All trifling and partial attempts at change in our existing system, it is hope, will be steadily discountenanced by Congress.

In this conclusion, which applies with even greater force to coinages, a fact fully recognized by Mr. Adams himself, the committee may safely now unite.

For the reasons herein set forth it is respectfully recommended that the bill be not now passed into a law.

APPENDIX TO MR. MORGAN'S REPORT.

MR. DUNNING'S SUGGESTIONS.

UNITED STATES ASSAY OFFICE, }
New York, Feb. 8, 1868. }

1. The present weight of the gold 5 franc piece is not justified by any scientific reasons better than the mathematical accident than 620 weigh exactly a kilogram, a circumstance which has not the slightest importance. The fact is, this fractional and inconvenient weight, which the world is now invited to adopt, was not fixed upon by the French themselves by design, but as the unavoidable result of a false theory. The famous coinage law of the 7th Germinal An. XI attempted to make a double standard, and to fix the ratio of gold to silver as 1 to 15½. Then having very sensibly adjusted the weights of their silver coins in integral numbers, 5 grains for the franc, and 25 grains for the 5 franc piece they were compelled to accept for the 5 franc gold piece the interminable decimal resulting from the division of 25 grains by 15.5, viz.: 1.61290322580645.

2. The awkwardness and inconvenience of this weight can best be shown by giving the weight of a few of the gold coins of France, Great Britain, and the United States, as they will be if the proposed unit is adopted :

	Existing weight of gold, 900 fine. Milligrams.	Proposed weights, adopting 1612.9 kilograms for monetary unit. Milligrams.	Equivalents in troy weights. Grains.
FRENCH COINS.			
Five francs.....	1,612.903	*1,612.903	24.8908
Twenty-five francs.....	8,064.516	*8,064.516	124.4544
One hundred francs.....	32,258.064	*32,258.064	497.8177
BRITISH COINS.			
Four shilling piece.....	1,627.996	†1,612.903	24.8908
Sovereign.....	8,135.983	†8,064.516	124.4544
Five sovereigns.....	40,679.915	†40,322.580	622.2721
UNITED STATES COINS.			
Dollar.....	1,671.813	†1,612.903	24.8908
Half eagles.....	8,350.064	†8,064.516	124.4544
Eagle.....	16,718.129	†16,129.032	248.9088
Double eagle.....	33,436.258	†32,258.065	497.8177
	Grams.	Grams.	Grains.
One thousand francs—French.....	32,258.064	322.5806	4,978.1769
One thousand dollars—United States.	1,671.8129	1,612.9932	24,890.884
One thousand pounds sterling.....	8,135.9840	8,064.5161	124,454.422

* No change.

† Reduction 0.88 per cent.

‡ Reduction 3.52 per cent.

3. The following table shows the weight of the same denominations of coin, &c., by adopting 1,620 milligrams instead of 1,612.9 for the monetary unit :

	Existing weights of gold, 900 fine.	Proposed weight adopting 1620 milligrams for the monetary unit.	Equivalent in troy weight.
	Milligrams.	Milligrams.	Grains.
FRENCH COINS.			
Five francs.....	1,612.903	*1,620	25
Twenty-five francs.....	8,064.516	*8,100	125
One hundred francs.....	32,258.064	*32,400	500
BRITISH COINS.			
Four shilling piece.....	1,627.196	†1,620	25
Sovereign.....	8,135.933	†8,100	125
Five sovereigns.....	40,679.915	†40,500	625
UNITED STATES COINS.			
Dollar.....	1,671.813	‡1,620	25
Half eagle.....	8,359.064	‡8,100	125
Eagle.....	16,718.129	‡16,200	250
Double eagles.....	33,436.259	‡32,400	500
	Grams.	Grams.	
One thousand francs.....	322,580	324	5,000
One thousand dollars.....	1,671,813	1,620	25,000
One thousand pounds sterling.....	8,135,984	8,100	125,000

NOTE.—The exact equivalent of 1,620 milligrams is in troy grains 25.0004; discarding this fraction of 4-10000 involves a discrepancy in calculations of only one cent in \$600, or 1-600 of one per cent.

4. It will be noticed that the proposed unit of 1,620 milligrams has the merit of offering to Great Britain an even compromise of the difference between her present coinage and that of France, instead of a reduction of the British gold coins of 88-100 per centum to make them equal to the French coins. The unit of 1,620 milligrams exactly splits the difference, requiring an increase of the French coins of 44-100 per centum, and a diminution of 44 100 per centum in the British coins. This difference is so slight as hardly to call for any legal adjustments of existing contracts in either country; and while in the United States such an adjustment will doubtless be required, the proposed unit of 1,620 makes the reduction of our coins almost one-half per centum less than would be effected by the unit of 1612.9. The exact difference as shown by the above tables is 42 100 of one per centum.

5. There is another very important advantage offered by the unit of 1620 milligrams, which you and all who have to do with mint calculations will appreciate. I allude to the facility of making calculations. I will not attempt to exhibit the difficulties in calculating value from the standard weight when the relation is expressed in such interminable decimals as must result from the adoption of the unit 1612.9. But you will see at a glance the facility of dealing with the unit of 1620.

* Increase 0.44 per cent.

† Reduction 0.44 per cent.

‡ Reduction 3.1 per cent.

The weight of 1,000 francs, or \$200, or £40, at 1620 milligrams to the dollar, would be 324,000 milligrams. These values are readily deduced from the weight, as will be seen by the following examples :

France.	United States.	Great Britain.
Milligrams 324,000	Milligrams 324,000	Milligrams 324,000
÷ 9 = 36,000	÷ 9 = 36,000	÷ 90 = 3,600
÷ 9 = 4,000	÷ 9 = 4,000	÷ 90 = £40
÷ 4 = 1,000 francs.	÷ 20 = \$200	

The above divisions are performed mentally without difficulty, and the rule of calculation is exceedingly simple. It is not at the mint alone, nor chiefly, that this facility of calculation will be appreciated. The transactions in coin and bullion the world over will be simplified by it. The experts at the mint can soon adapt themselves to any system however complicated; but for the convenience of commerce the relation of weight to value in the coins of the world ought to be simple.

6. If the troy system of weights is to be continued in this country and Great Britain, it will be immensely important that the monetary unit expressed in milligrams should be easily convertible into troy weight. A glance at the tables given above will show the discrepancy between the unit of 1612.9 and the troy system, and also the beautiful and almost marvellous harmony effected by the unit of 1620 milligrams.

7. I trust, however, that Mr. Sherman's bill will contain a section making the use of the French system of weights obligatory in all the mints of the United States. This change would seem to be almost a necessary part of the plan of monetary unification of the world's coinage; and it would certainly be a judicious method of partially familiarizing the country with the metrical system, the universal adoption of which, even if not perfect, is so devoutly to be wished.

If you deem these remarks of sufficient importance, I should be glad if you would send them, with your comments, to Governor Morgan of the Senate.

Very respectfully and truly yours,

Mr. Dubois.

GEORGE F. DUNNING.

In forwarding this copy, I have only to add my hearty concurrence in the views taken by Mr. Dunning. Whether they would arrest or embarrass the plan of complete and prompt unification, is a point which I must leave to wiser counsels.

With respects of,

WM. E. DUBOIS,

February 12, 1868.

United States Mint, Philadelphia.

THE ALASKA APPROPRIATION.

The opposition developed in the House of Representatives to the appropriation of \$7,200,000 for the purchase of Russian America suggests considerable doubt whether the Alaska treaty may not after all be defeated. It would be unfair to regard the House as altogether captious in its opposition; and yet there is a degree of rashness in its discussion of this question which does not altogether bear examination. It must be allowed that there is some ground for the House feeling jealous at an apparent slight in the negotiation of the treaty. While it is to be conceded as beyond all question that the Constitution invests the treaty-making power in the Executive and the Senate conjointly, yet it is quite conceivable that, in a matter of so much consequence and involving, according to Mr. Sumner and Mr. Banks, a great national policy in the future, the House should feel affronted at the negotiation having been carried to the extent of taking possession of the territory without consulting the representatives of the people who are expected to vote the money for the purchase. The House, naturally enough under such circumstances, feels that there has been a stretch of prerogative, in the case, and is disposed to make the President and the Senate feel that in all treaties involving the payment of money the House has practically a very important control, which in future cases it may be convenient to recognise.

It was doubtless imprudent to occupy Alaska before the purchase money was actually appropriated. The act could hardly fail to offend the respect of the House for its prerogatives; inasmuch as it seemed to imply that the House was absolutely bound by the action of the treaty-making power, and had no option but to vote the public money, no matter what their views as to the expediency of the appropriation. Such an assumption the House could only be expected to resent. The premature occupation of the territory indeed is the principal cause of the opposition. Occupation before appropriation is wholly inconsistent with our Constitutional provisions. It assumes what should on no account be taken for granted, that the House will certainly vote the requisite appropriation. The action of the House is discretionary in these matters; and, in all treaties involving the payment of money, a proviso should be introduced making the engagement binding only in the event of the House of Representatives voting the required funds. It is unfair toward the foreign power in treaty to make conclusive engagements with it, so long as it is unascertained whether those holding the purse strings will advance the purchase money. If the House intends to teach our officials a lesson for their undue haste in this matter, and to

establish a warning precedent for their successors, it is impossible not to respect the motive.

Not a few representatives, however, appear to oppose the appropriation purely upon the merits of the acquisition, as a matter of public policy. They regard Alaska as unneeded for strategic purposes; and its value for fishing, mining and lumber they consider as having been extravagantly over-estimated by the promoters of the annexation. For ourselves we are ready to concede all this, and regard the treaty as a very costly mistake. We do not regret that the measure has been very sharply criticised in the House, nor yet that a course has been taken calculated to warn all the departments of the Government against future hasty treaties; and yet we should deem it a great misfortune were the opposition to be carried to the extent of defeating the treaty. As a choice between the evils of appropriating seven millions for the conclusion of a foolish treaty, and the dishonor of repudiating a contract to which the Government has fairly committed itself, we consider the former decidedly the more preferable. The agents duly authorized for the contracting of treaties have made the engagement with Russia. The ceding power was so generous as to allow us to take possession before any part of the purchase money was paid, and without exacting any sort of security for its payment; Russia has removed her officers from Alaska, and many of her subjects have returned home at considerable expense; and we have held possession for several months, introducing important changes in the affairs of the country. Is it to be supposed that we are at liberty to do all this and then vacate, assigning no other reason than that we have decided not to part with our money? Would this be just? Would it be generous treatment of a power which, above all others, has shown itself friendly to us in times of peril? The least that could be expected from Russia in such a case would be a demand for compensation; and are we prepared to submit to the humiliation of rendering such reparation? Or, if we should refuse to grant any compensation, the subsequent disposition of Russia toward the United States can hardly be a matter of question. Moreover, after such an act, having ratified the treaty and taken possession of the country ceded, what would be the standing of our honor with all foreign governments? If our treaties thus deliberately made and executed, are to be violated upon any frivolous pretext, or upon mere quarrels between the co-ordinate branches of the government, we must be content to be treated as a power whose compacts are unworthy of reliance.

In view, then, of the grave international consequences which must follow the failure of this treaty, we can see no course but for the House to make the requisite appropriation; no matter how inconvenient to the

Treasury, how burthensome the acquisition. If a mistake has been made, we have gone too far to turn back now. If the Executive and the Senate have made a bad bargain; if they have improperly committed the country to it by needless precipitation; if they have slighted the House in their inconsiderate haste; if it be necessary to teach them a lesson which will prevent a recurrence of the error in other acquisitions now sought; these are matters for adjustment between the House and those invested with the power of treaty; not for settlement between the United States and Russia. There are other ways by which the House can express its disapproval of this annexation policy than by defeating compliance with the terms of the treaty; and we cannot but believe that ultimately the representatives will conclude to first honor the treaty and then take proper steps for preventing the recurrence of similar errors.

THE PROPOSED PAYMENT OF FIVE-TWENTIES IN GREENBACKS.

Politicians appear to think they have at length succeeded in making popular the idea of paying the Five-Twenty bonds in greenbacks. With the people at large the belief doubtless has heretofore been, that the principal no less than the interest of all the bonds is payable in gold. The suspension of specie payments, they viewed as merely a temporary incident of war finance, and never dreamt that the twenty years obligations of the Government would be regarded in any other light than as engagements to pay so much in coin. Besides, the agents of the Government in issuing the loans announced, while the Secretary of the Treasury confirmed the announcement, that the principal as well as the interest was to be paid in gold; and, although viewed in this light, the engagements of the Government thus assumed a very weighty and serious aspect, yet there was no disposition on the part of the people to evade any part of their engagements as thus understood, but rather to establish an unparalleled precedent of national honor, and to put on record the fact that republics are mindful of the rights of their creditors. So the matter stood until quite recently; no other idea being entertained, except by foreign censors, whose doubts were generally regarded at home as but an expression of the unfriendly desire of Europeans to depreciate our character and institutions. A few politicians, however, in search of a popular issue for the presidential election, pretend to have discovered what they sought in the domain of finance. The idea was put out, at first cautiously, and then boldly, that the Five-Twenty bonds were issued intentionally without any provision in the acts requiring payment in gold, except as to the interest, and with a reserved purpose that the Government should be free to avail itself of the privilege of

redeeming them pending the suspension of specie payments; and that, with this view, the bonds were made payable, at the option of the Government, on the expiration of five years from date of issue, in whatever might then be the legal tender money of the country. This option, it is argued, was provided against the probable contingency that, after the conclusion of peace, the Government might have an opportunity of taking up its obligations in the same depreciated paper for which it issued them, and of re-negotiating its loans under the circumstances of the improved credit resulting from the restoration of the national authority. The advocates of the policy maintain that this opportunity has now come, and urge that the Five-Twenty bonds shall be retired in currency at the expiration of the five years option, and new bonds issued bearing 4 or 5 per cent interest, and principal and interest made payable in coin. This idea is now gaining ground rapidly as a political issue. The New York convention has unequivocally committed itself in favor of the payment of the Five-Twenties in greenbacks. On the other hand, the Chicago platform, although it insists very emphatically upon the observance of good faith, in respect to the public obligations, yet contains nothing to preclude the supposition that this very course may not be construed in that sense by the leaders of the party. And hence we have a prominent Congressman from Massachusetts claiming, in the House, such to be the true interpretation of the platform; and the sentiment of the House drifting in the same direction; while Mr. Sherman's funding bill, now before the Senate, is based upon a similar view of the law. These circumstances at least indicate that politicians believe the idea a popular one. That it will be the settled policy of the successful party after election we cannot believe. The money was borrowed on the representations that the bonds were to be paid in gold, and to insist now that the agents of the Government had no authority to make such representations appears to us too closely allied to repudiation for the American people to adopt it. Besides the Senate is conservative and likely to remain so; and while it does, such a scheme would find little favor there. As this issue, however, has been so prominently raised, it is not untimely to enquire what would be the prospect of success were it attempted.

The first necessity would be to obtain the required currency, and as no considerable party seeks the issue of more greenbacks, or would for a moment tolerate the idea of additional taxation to raise them, the payment must be made through an exchange of bonds. This exchange must be accomplished either voluntarily on the part of the bondholders, or by compulsion. Let it be supposed that, to avoid the odium of a compulsory method, the bondholders be offered a four or five per cent bond, principal and interest made specifically payable in gold, in

exchange for their Five-Twenties; what inducement is there to make the exchange? Investors prefer to pay four to five per cent more for Five-Twenties than for Ten-Forties, a five per cent bond expressly payable in gold, even although there is now considerable reason for expecting that the Government will treat the former as payable in currency; and it certainly is not very apparent how our political financiers are going to persuade bondholders that it is to their interest to surrender a 6 per cent obligation for one paying only 5 per cent. If it be said that Congress will declare itself not bound to redeem the Five-Twenties in coin, then bondholders will reply that for the sake of securing 1 per cent more interest for fifteen years they are quite willing to take the risks as to what may be the legal money of the United States at the period of the maturity of the bonds, and especially as there is a strong show of probability in favor of the supposition that the Treasury would, at that period, have resumed specie payments. These considerations would manifestly induce the public creditors to decline any voluntary offer to substitute their Six-Per-Cents by a bond bearing a lower rate of interest.

Let it be supposed, however, that the Treasury call in the Five-Twenties at five years from date, offering the holders either to pay them in greenbacks or to exchange them for a new bond bearing 4 or 5 per cent interest, and made payable in coin; how would the case stand in that event? A large majority of the present holders of Five-Twenties have bought their bonds at 5 to 10 per cent premium, and in the event of accepting currency in their redemption would lose that amount of principal; a loss to which they would not consent except under compulsion. Would the bondholders then prefer the alternative of exchanging their bonds for one bearing a lower rate of interest, say 5 per cent? That must depend very much upon their views as to the value of such a security. In ordinary times the five per cent bonds of the United States sold upon the market for more than their present price reduced to gold. In 1860 the Fives of 1874 sold at 100@102½, which is equal to 141@143½ with gold at its present premium. It must be remembered, however, that then the public debt was only \$65,000,000, and the total national expenditure only \$77,500,000, which placed the Government credit in a very different position from that which it now occupies. At that time no question was entertained as to our ability and willingness to meet all our obligations in gold; now it is otherwise. It may also be urged that Ten-Forties are now selling at a good premium, and consequently a bond more or less of that character ought to prove exchangeable at par for the Five-Twenties if called in. The fact of Ten-Forties having recently advanced to over par is due to exceptional causes. The

recent agitation of the question of paying Five-Twenties in greenbacks has caused foreign investors to give the Ten Forties a marked preference, owing to the stipulation for the payment of principal in coin; while the banks have, to a large extent, bought them for use as a deposit against their issues of currency in consequence of their costing less, and yet sustaining an equal amount of circulation. The fact of Ten-Forties ranging above par is therefore, under these exceptional circumstances favoring their value, no evidence whatever that an issue of \$1,600,000,000 of similar bonds could be put out at par. Due weight must be attached to the effect upon the feeling of the bondholders that would attend this compulsory method of dealing with the debt. Beyond question, the mass of the holders of Five-Twenties consider that the bonds are rightfully payable in coin; and they would consequently feel themselves wronged in being compelled to receive anything short of gold. They would regard the action of the Government as simply a dishonest pandering to the desire of the masses to get rid of the burthens of taxation; and would argue that this was but the first step in bad faith, which from like motives might lead to further measures of repudiation. They have already witnessed a loud clamor against the bondholders, and in the event of Congress practically recognizing this hostility, they would be apt to conclude that the public creditors have no security in the good will of political leaders and the people. It would seem then to be a probability amounting almost to certainty that the holders of Five-Twenties would, under the circumstances supposed, almost universally accept currency in preference to the new bonds, and eschew all further connection with Government securities. What could the Treasury do in the event of matters taking that course? With an average of about \$30,000,000 of currency in its vaults, its means for retiring the bonds would be exhausted in two or three days, and it would be compelled to abandon the scheme and allow the bonds to run on to maturity.

We think that the above considerations, carefully weighed would lead to the conclusion that any effort to retire the Five-Twenty bonds in the way now agitated by politicians must prove an utter failure, and a gratuitous injury to the national credit. The clamor respecting the payment of the bonds in greenbacks may answer well enough for electioneering effect; but any party undertaking to put such a policy into operation must shoulder the responsibility of a disgraceful financial failure.

BRAZILIAN FINANCES.

We have received from the Brazilian Consul General the financial report of the department of Finance of Brazil, showing the debt, revenue, and expenditures for several years past, and the estimates for the coming year of that government. The increasing interest felt in this South-American State has induced us to make a full analysis of this report which we give below.

ESTIMATES FOR THE COMING YEAR.

In estimating the receipts the Finance Minister says that he follows a process which has been justified by facts, unless when extraordinary circumstances disturb the ordinary course of the public revenue. This process consists in ascertaining, as far as possible, what has been the product collected of the current year, up to the date on which the estimates are organised, and in basing the calculation of receipts upon the figures thus obtained. The elements for this work are the returns of the various collecting stations in the municipality of the court and of the treasuries of fazenda in the provinces. The treasury possesses returns of the year 1867-8 up to February of this year, from some treasuries, from others up to December last, and from the rest up to September, 1867. If we unite the data furnished by those documents and with them make the proportional calculation, the sum of 64,435:682\$447 is obtained for the presumable revenue of the said fiscal year.

In order to ascertain how far this result approximates to the truth, it is necessary to recur to another process of valuation, recommended by the law namely: to taking the average of the revenue in the three years preceding that of the estimates. The revenue having been 56,995:928\$628, in 1864-65, 57,815:567\$483, in 1865-66, and 61,152:478\$387, in 1866-7, the average is 58,654:658\$163. As, however, for greater exactness, the revenue of the years 1865-66 and 1866-67 do not include the yield of the D. Pedro II. railway, which did not belong to the State in 1864-65, it is proper to add the amount of this yield, now valued at 1,500,000\$, to the average given above; doing which will raise the sum of the average to 61,154:658\$166. In the sum of 64,435:682\$447, obtained by the calculation in table I, is included that of 2,900:000\$ which represents approximately the product of the taxes levied or created by the law of September last, whose collection has already commenced. Deducting this amount, the remainder, reis 61,535:682\$447 shows how exact is the calculation based on the product collected of the current year, inasmuch as the difference observed between the latter result and that of the calculation by average, is only the effect of the constant progression of the public income.

Thus, therefore, we would have the sum of 61,500:000\$, for base to the estimate if we had not to look to that increase of the ordinary resources of the treasury which will result from the dispositions of the aforesaid law of September 26, last. The increase which the new taxation will give to the public income cannot yet be estimated with exactness; some imposts commenced collection only in October last, that is, in the fourth month of the current fiscal year; others affecting foreign commerce required a certain delay; and the rest still depend upon difficult and therefore dilatory assessments, and upon the completion of the new tariff. Meanwhile, by the collections made up to the present time, we have no reason for believing that the reality will differ much from the calculations made when the legislature discussed the ruling law of the estimate, when the product of the new taxation was valued at 12,250:000\$000.

Supposing that the legislature, appreciating the exigencies of our financial system, will continue to authorize the collection of those imposts, the finance minister says he has added the above sum to what was ascertained as base for the valuation of the receipts, and I have estimated those of the fiscal years 1869-70, in the terms of the bill, at 73,000:000\$, a margin thus remaining for any eventuality.

The annual progression of the revenue may be deduced from the above figures. The receipts were :

In 1864-65	56,995:023\$628
In 1865-66, including yield of D. Pedro II. railway.....	58,146:843\$993
In 1866-67 " " " "	61,469:437\$500
In 1867-68 " " " " not less than... ..	61,535:000\$000

--without the product of the new taxes. So that, at the height of the struggle with Paraguay, the report says, the powers of the country have not failed, nor should we fear that they may fail.

One of the most important branches of agriculture—coffee—promises in this year a harvest exceeding that of last year (which itself was large) to judge by the following figures, relating to the mart of Rio de Janeiro, which is that of greatest movement and that of which we can obtain the latest and completest notices, when comparing the first quarters of the last and current years :

	1st quarter of	
	1867.	1868.
Entered	395,586	422,922
Exported	508,907	523,615
Stock, March 31.....	57,000	160,000

As to cotton, the chief centres of production being the provinces of Pernambuco, Maranhao, Bahia, Alagoas, Ceara, Parahyba and S. Paulo, the information held by the treasury is not of so recent date, nor so complete, wherefore it cannot be judged whether this branch of production tends

with certainty towards progression, although it is incontestable that it has augmented in some provinces.

After furnishing the estimate of income, the report passes on to the expenditure. The expenditure for the fiscal year of 1869-70 is calculated at 70 798:932\$333, thus distributed among the various ministries:

Empire	4,932:966\$828	War.....	13,855:872\$691
Justice	3,283:069\$649	Finance.....	28,481:742\$771
Foreign.....	748:419\$998	Agriculture.....	11,819:699\$710
Marine	7,715:160\$716		

Comparing the sum of these amounts with what was voted for the fiscal year of 1868-69 some excess is noted, which arises from the indispensable development of some branches of public service. The excess arises from a larger amount being needed for payment—of the interest of the internal debt, which has increased with the issue of bonds; of pensions, whose number has augmented in consequence of the prolongation of the war; of differences in exchange; and, finally, of the service increased by the payment of the guarantee of interest on the Sao Paulo railway.

A summary of the foregoing as follows:

Estimated receipts	73,000:000\$600
“ expenditure.....	70,786:932\$333

The fiscal year of 1869-70 will show a surplus of..... 2,213:067\$667

PRESENT STATE OF THE TREASURY.

In the current fiscal year is continued the high expenditure exacted by the war against the government of Paraguay. And, although the treasury has made use of part of the authorizations conceded, still it struggles with some difficulties.

The receipts of the present fiscal year, with resources from loans, etc, will not be less than	109,047:739\$085
The total expenditures will be.....	133,396,554\$985

Comparing the receipts with the expenditures there is a deficit of . 24,348:815\$900

which the government was authorized to provide for by the issue of paper money and did in part.

EXTERNAL DEBT.

The debt of Brazil due abroad has been reduced by £349,900, the amount paid off in the course of the last year, and it shows at present the sum of £14,068,600, inclusive of £376,314 yet owing by the Pernambuco Railway Company.

The bonds redeemed belong:

To the loan of 1839.....	£10,000	To the loan of 1863.....	£116,400
“ “ 1852.....	28,900	“ “ 1865.....	70,400
“ “ 1858.....	64,800		
“ “ 1859.....	11,600	Total	£348,900
“ “ 1860.....	46,800		

The outlay for interest, commission and brokerage on the foreign debt, during the fiscal year of 1869-70 is estimated at £931,163, namely: £657,358 for interest and commission, and £273,805 of amortization and respective commissions and brokerage. As, however, the loan of 1839 matures in January, 1869, the outlay for the debt spoken of will exceed in 1869 the £931,163 estimated above by £277,800, to which the above debt will be reduced at its maturity, if it be redeemed in the manner authorized in Art. 36, No. 2 of the ruling law of the estimates. To meet the outlay made in Europe, both for this and other ministries, remittances of £2,025,000 were made from April 22, 1867, to April 30, 1868, costing at various rates 25,049:229\$281.

INTERNAL FUNDED DEBT.

On the 31st of March last 125,206:700\$ in bonds of the public debt existed in circulation, which gives a result of an increase of 18,856:100\$ over that of last year in April, when 106,350:000\$ was circulating. This increase arises from bonds for 46:600\$ given in exchange for Don Pedro II. railway shares; 16,896\$800 issued by virtue of the acts of June 28, 1865, and September 19, 1866; 1,912:300\$ sold in the provinces; and of 400\$ in a bond at 5 per cent interest interest given in the province of Pernambuco in payment of a debt inscribed in the auxiliary of the Grande Livro. In the above sum of 16,896:800\$ is included that of 1,620:000\$ issued as premium for the liberation of slaves for service in the war, and that of 117:400\$ in payment to Dr. Thomas Cochrane, arising from a debt of a previous year, ordered to be paid in bonds by an order dated October 24, 1867. The bonds existing in circulation are owned as follows:

By nationals	95,971:700\$
“ foreigners	5,032:500\$
“ public establishments	23,535:100\$
“ various in the provinces	667:400\$
Total	122,206:700\$

For the payment of whose interest the Caixa de Amortizacao received 6,537:457\$558. In the account of remnants of unclaimed interest, which is converted into bonds by virtue of Art. 48 of law of October 28, 1848, there is a profit of 394:743\$669.

TREASURY BILLS.

The total of the treasury bills in circulation upon April 30 last was 69,985:400\$, which, compared with 45,369:600\$, to which it amounted at the same date last year, shows an increase of 24,615:800\$.

PAPER MONEY.

The paper money in circulation upon March 31 last amounted to.....	42,560:044\$
At present it is raised to.....	81,749:274\$
Showing an excess of.....	39,189:230\$

—which arises from :

1st. The issue corresponding to the notes of Bank of Brazil called in with the product of the sale of its bullion, effected since last years report.....	14,867:350\$
2d. That made on account of the credit of 50,000:000\$, granted by the law of September 28, 1867.....	20,647:830\$
3d. That relating to the 11,000:000\$ due to the Bank for calling in treasury notes, as provided by the law of September, 1866.....	3,701:250\$
	39,216:430\$
Less the discounts on various substituted notes.....	27:200\$
Total.....	39,189:230\$

The report states that the government was obliged to recur to the credit of the act of September 28, last. When I solicited this credit says the Finance Minister, I promised to use it in extreme cases only, and, in fact, it was only after trying other means recommended by experience, but fruitless as to enabling the treasury to regularly and promptly support its heavy burdens, aggravated by the crisis, that I decided on employing it. When the metallic reserve bought from the Bank of Brazil by the government was expended it became indispensable to undertake the acquisition of gold, so as not to interrupt paying the officers and men of the army and navy operating in Paraguay. The ordinary resources of the treasury were insufficient for this and it became necessary, therefore, to recur to operations of credit in order to obtain means. I have already shown you that the impropriety of attempting a loan in Europe will subsist as long as the war lasts; I sustained this idea in the debate on the law No. 1,508; and, although our financial state should improve through the ruling law of estimates having created taxes, no circumstance indicates an opportunity for making that attempt. The government having to rely upon our own resources, it reduced the price of bonds to obtain a greater issue of them, and it tried to attract more floating capital to the treasury by raising the rate of interest.

Meanwhile the urgency of the heavy monthly expenditures did not permit waiting for the slow effect of these measures, which, indeed, from the extension given to the issues, must little by little go on producing slenderer results, and thus only the employment of both of them combined with that of paper money could be efficacious, as in fact was the case. Since October the government has issued paper money for account of the credit referred to; but at first issue had in view to aid in the

operation of paying for the gold bought from the Bank of Brazil, and it would be completely annulled on abandoning the issue for account of the credit of the law of September 12, 1866, corresponding to that payment, because it is a matter of indifference whether the issue be for account of one or other law, so long as it be not in duplicate. In December, however, the necessities of the treasury forced the government to effectively issue paper money, notwithstanding the considerable sale of bonds then being made and the great revenue of the custom house, produced by the anticipation of the clearances.

The act of the government, therefore, appears to me to be justified, and meanwhile, it has not, as I have already observed, produced the evils so much feared from it.

CIRCULATING MEDIUM.

The paper in circulation at the dates of the last returns received at the treasury amounted to namely.....	124,686:209\$
Paper money issued to March 31 last.....	81,749:274\$
Bank paper issued to February 21 last.....	42,936:935\$
The effective issue of the banks was—	
Bank of Brazil.....	40,914:835\$
Bank of Bahia.....	2,007:000
Bank of Pernambuco... ..	15:100\$

Having nearly concluded the calling in of notes of the Bank of Brazil with the product of the sale of its bullion, and having commenced that of 11,000:000\$ corresponding to the debt due by the treasury to the bank for redemption of paper money, the respective issue is now almost in the state prescribed by the act of September 12, 1866.

PUBLIC REVENUE.

The revenue collected during the fiscal year of 1866-67 amounted, including the deposits, to: 66,756:431\$145.

Being from:

Importation.....	37,397:053\$576
Maritime dispatch.....	296:142\$687
Exportation.....	10,674:640\$896
Interior.....	9,941:440\$011
Municipality taxes.....	2,077:908\$930
Extraordinary.....	1,457:239\$335
Deposits.....	4,911:005\$210

Without the deposits it exceeds the estimate of 55,000:000\$ by 6,845:425\$935.

That of 1865-66 amounting with the deposits to 63,271:871\$336, an increase of 3,484:559\$808 took place in 1866-67.

Excluding the deposits of both years the revenue of 1866-67 was greater than that of 1865-66 by 3,602:823\$023.

Comparing the different items of revenue in both it may be seen that the collection of 1866-67 rose above that of 1865-66 in the following:

Importation.....	3,955:658\$822 or 11.82
Maritime dispatch.....	5:909\$512 or 2.03
Interior.....	189:665\$947 or 1.94
Municipality.....	21:079\$400 or 1.02
And diminished in:	
Exportation.....	290:659\$425 or 2.65
Extraordinary.....	278:821\$233 or 16.06

And there was a diminution of 118:273\$215 in deposits.

COTTON.

According to return 97 the export of cotton was in:

1866-67.....	1,816,387 arrobas value 23,741:598\$
1865-66.....	2,899,004 " " 46,917:409\$
1864-65.....	1,126,015 " " 31,558:635\$

However as the export from Ceara in 1866-67 is altogether wanting together with that of the last half year from Pernambuco, the export of 1866-67 will not have the relation with the other years which would appear from the return.

COMMERCE OF IMPORTATION, EXPORTATION AND NAVIGATION.

The value of the import trade in 1866-67, according to the official data in the treasury, was 43,483:745\$; 22,503:313\$, or 18.6 per cent more than the average of the five years 1861-2 to 1865-6, and 5,716:903\$, or 4.1 per cent, more than 1865-6.

This importation took place in the various provinces in the following proportion, which is compared with 1865-6:

	1865-66.	1866-67.	over in '65-66.
Rio de Janeiro.....	80.709:067\$	50.458:064\$
Bahia.....	17.598:941\$	17.878:203\$	279:262\$
Pernambuco.....	21.083:655\$	22.211:290\$	1.127:645\$
Maranhao.....	2.946:760\$	4.028:383\$	1.081:623\$
Para.....	4.613:218\$	5.396:702\$	783:488\$
S. Pedro.....	6.514:923\$	7.746:076\$	1.231:153\$
Paulo.....	1.295:948\$	1.546:755\$	250:807\$
Parana.....	154:083\$	237:278\$	81:195\$
Parahyba.....	26:067\$	99:446\$	73:379\$
Ceara.....	1.924:546\$	2.586:973\$	662:427\$
Santa Catharina.....	449:246\$	630:912\$	181:666\$
Alagoas.....	62:250\$	219:537\$	157:287\$
Sergipe.....	61:77\$	17:390\$
Espirito Santo.....	1:209\$	2:116\$	907\$
Rio Grande do Norte.....	30:853\$	171:654\$	140:801\$
Piauy.....	293:157\$	252:257\$
	136.766:542\$	143.483:745\$	6.053:893\$

Diminutions occurred: in Rio Janeiro, 251:003\$; Sergipe, 45,787\$, and Piauy, 40,209\$; total, 336,990\$.

The countries whence the importation came in 1866-67 were the following:

Great Britain and possessions.....	58,276:905\$783
United States.....	4,300:628\$878
France and possessions.....	22,023:196\$953
La Plata.....	12,325:712\$734
Portugal and possessions.....	5,580:451\$780
Hanseatic Cities.....	4,340:509\$479
Spain and possessions.....	805:919\$990
Sweden.....	222:494\$583
Denmark.....	34:134\$495
Russia.....	12:277\$800
Coast of Africa.....	151:773\$425
Italy.....	468:789\$695
Chile.....	537:023\$100
Belgium.....	1,333:855\$778
Austria.....	910:268\$440
Holland.....	3:017\$850
China.....	23:400\$000
Peru.....	680\$000
Ports of the Mediterranean.....	29:744\$000
Ports of the Empire.....	1,354:734\$001
Fi heries.....	1:381\$200
Ports not mentioned.....	30,747:145\$332
Total.....	143,488:745\$296

The value of the exports of native production and manufacture to foreign countries was in 1866-67 156,030:906\$, 21,516:502, or 15.9 per cent more than the average of the five years 1861-2 to 1865-66, and less by 1,066:652\$, or 0.67 per cent than in 1865-66.

Each of the provinces of the Empire contributed as follows, compared also with 1865-66:

	1866-67.	1865-66.	---Difference in 1866-67---	
			More.	Less.
Rio de Janeiro.....	73,844:227\$	69,628:952\$	13,215:275\$
Bahia.....	16,202:323\$	19,247:941\$	3,045:613\$
Pernambuco.....	21,436:141\$	26,084:468\$	3,648:327\$
Maranhao.....	4,509:907\$	6,183:419\$	1,673:512\$
Para.....	8,619:223\$	6,952:745\$	1,666:478\$
S. Pedro.....	7,388:977\$	7,564:972\$	175:996\$
S. Paulo.....	6,713:397\$	7,870:766\$	1,157:369\$
Parana.....	2,099:434\$	1,569:286\$	530:148\$
Parahyba.....	4,204:062\$	6,695:290\$	2,490:328\$
Ceara.....	3,253:468\$	3,180:558\$	72:910\$
Santa Catharina.....	490:830\$	518:362\$	2,733\$
Alagoas.....	4,106:557\$	7,582:212\$	3,475:654\$
Sergipe.....	1,233:157\$	1,391:340\$	158:473\$
Espirito Santo.....	14:555\$	14:555\$
Rio Grande do Norte ..	630:146\$	1,353:811\$	723:665\$
Piauhy.....	238:452\$	248:892\$	39:260\$
Total.....	156,020:906\$	157,087:568\$	15,524:071\$	16,590:723\$

The countries whither the exports of 1866-67 went were the following :

Russia.....	46 :669\$717	United States.....	31,188:066\$047
Sweden.....	773:111\$068	La Plata.....	7,014:207\$881
Holland.....	80 :356\$944	Turkey.....	149:347\$716
Hanseatic cities.....	4,816:242\$458	Denmark.....	913,630\$980
Great Britain and pos- sessions.....	37,283:974\$040	Coast of Africa.....	448,869\$272
France & possessions.	18,582:278\$631	Channel.....	16,511:891\$087
Spain & possessions..	165:387\$149	Ports of the Baltic an Mediterranean.....	1,363:562\$864
Portugal & possessions	4,347:275\$259	Ports not known.....	30,335:659\$000
Belgium.....	328:048\$841	Consumption.....	42:64 2\$178
Austria.....	61:381\$600		
Italy.....	734:400\$624	Total.....	156,020:906\$766
Chile.....	414:903\$411		

The total of the direct importation and the national exportation abroad was in—

1867-67.....	299,504:551\$
Compared with 1866-66, namely.....	294,854:400\$
There was an augment of.....	4,650:251\$
Or 1.5 per cent, and, if compared with the average of 1861-2 to 1865-6, namely.....	255,484:836\$

—these was an increase of 44,020:815, or 17.2 per cent.

The value of the importation with certificate (carta de guia) was in 1865-67 24,902:670\$, 823:969\$, or 3.4 per cent more than in 1865-6, 2,448:821\$, or 12.6 per cent more than the average of the five years 1861-2 to 1865-6.

The re-exportation in 1866-67 arose to 1,786,052\$, 447,993\$, or 33.4 per cent more than in 1865-6, and 377,686\$, or 26.8 more than the average of 1861-2 to 1865-6.

The number of national and foreign vessels cleared in the foreign trade of 1866-67 was—

Entered 3,439 vessels.....	1,245,214 tons.....	51,450 men.
Sailed 2 429 “.....	1,496,274 (*) tons.....	49,655 “

—including nationals—

Entered 255 vessels.....	43,579 tons.....	1,953 men.
Sailed 209 “.....	45,703 (*) tons.....	2,174 “

MICHIGAN CENTRAL RAILROAD.

This important road extends from Detroit to Chicago, 284.8 miles, and forms one link in the great chain of roads between New York and the latter city, on the most northern route. The company also leases the Joliet and Indiana Railroad, extending from Lake Station to Joliet a distance of 44.5 miles, making the total length operated by the company 329.3 miles. The annual report of operations for the year ending May 31, 1868, has just been issued, from

which it appears that there has been a falling off of \$102,718 in the receipts from passenger traffic, and an increase of \$195,452 on the earnings from freight; the expenses of the year have also been less by \$112,231, which makes the net earnings \$257,620 larger than in the previous fiscal year.

The decrease in receipts from passenger traffic is attributed to a reduction in rates of fare, and also to the diversion of passengers by competing lines, chiefly through the system of allowing commissions on the sale of tickets, which the Michigan Central Company refuses to do. The increase from freights is principally due to the completion of the third rail on the Great Western Railroad of Canada, and the Iron Ferry train steamer at Detroit, thus allowing freight cars to go through by that route without breaking bulk.

The results of operations for the past five years have been as follows:

EARNINGS.					
	1863-64.	1864-65.	1865-66.	1866-67.	1867-68.
Passengers.....	\$1,262,415	\$1,771,814	\$2,001,335	\$1,824,226	\$1,721,506
(Av. p. pass. p. m.) cents.....	2.44½	2.59	2.72	2.69
Freight.....	2,073,274	2,233,529	2,208,592	2,385,522	2,480,974
(Av. p. ton p. m.) cents.....	2.25	3.06	2.60	2.49	2.45
Miscellaneous.....	98,859	140,076	176,563	215,743	298,402
Total gross earnings.....	\$3,434,548	\$4,145,419	\$4,446,490	\$4,325,491	\$4,476,879
Expenses.....	1,720,125	2,406,149	2,808,276	2,826,777	2,714,545
Net earnings.....	\$1,714,423	\$1,739,270	\$1,638,114	\$1,498,714	\$1,756,334
“ “ per cent.....	49.92	41.96	36.94	34.65	39.28

The general income account, varying somewhat from the above figures, exhibits the total revenue and disbursements as in the following statement:

	1863-4.	1864-5.	1865-66.	1866-67.	1867-68.
Balance from prev. years.....	\$772,636	\$1,002,894	\$703,385	\$460,803	\$443,450
Receipts from earnings.....	3,417,186	4,121,213	4,415,279	4,333,705	4,480,230
Total revenue.....	\$4,189,822	\$5,124,107	\$5,159,664	\$4,794,507	\$4,923,68

EXPENSES.

From which amounts were disbursed as follows:

	1863-64	1864-65.	1865-66.	1866-67.	1867-68.
Expenses.....	\$1,720,125	\$2,406,149	\$2,808,276	\$2,826,777	\$2,714,545
Sinking fund.....	84,500	84,500	84,500	84,500	84,500
Interest and exchange.....	600,217	622,691	643,726	623,081	646,170
Cash dividends—July.....	(6) 363,432	(12) 757,889	(4) 259,648	(5) 349,185	(5) 406,025
“ “—Jan.....	(6) 363,432	(6) 378,942	(5) 344,035	(5) 375,135	(5) 408,860
Stock dividend, July, '65.....	(6) 389,472
U. S. tax on dividends.....	21,753	69,935	55,723	26,926	37,817
“ “ on receipts.....	33,469	95,280	113,381	60,503	43,518
Total disbursements.....	\$3,186,928	\$4,415,722	\$4,698,861	\$4,351,057	\$4,441,437
Balance to next year.....	\$1,002,894	\$703,385	\$460,803	\$443,450	\$582,242

GENERAL BALANCES.

The general balances are shown in the following accounts, as of May 31, yearly:

	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.
Capital stock.....	\$6,315,906	\$6,491,386	\$6,982,866	\$8,070,066	\$8,477,266
Bonds.....	7,740,989	7,565,489	7,463,489	7,263,989	6,968,988
U. S. tax on coupons.....	5,435	158	53	4	33
Unpaid dividends.....	1,598	660	1,039	995	914
Jack-on, Lansing and.....	233,469
Saginaw R.R. Co.....
Bills and sundries.....	15,492	279,915
Balance of income.....	1,002,894	708,385	460,803	443,450	582,242
Total.....	\$15,066,822	\$14,781,570	\$15,188,190	\$16,017,543	\$16,032,516

Per contra the following are shown :

Construction, &c.	\$13,805,576	\$13,805,576	\$14,316,423	\$14,930,514	\$14,914,167
Materials.	174,006	288,065	209,887	159,732
Cash, loans, &c.	807,841	224,608	75,750	333,660	354,373
Jol. & N. Indiana RR.	168,225	168,225	168,225	168,225	168,225
Jackson, Lansing and Saginaw bond acct.	8,055	105,000
Land accounts.	214,173	125,911	122,036	122,085
Assets in officers' h'ds.	75,736	137,069	145,737	152,110	144,551
Bills and accounts.	200,444	39,596	68,078	92,753	67,457
Total.	\$15,066,822	\$14,751,576	\$15,188,190	\$16,017,543	\$16,029,546

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

The Loan Market—Rates of Loans and Discounts—The Ease in Money—Bonds sold at New York Stock Exchange Board—Prices of Government Securities at New York—Course of Consols and American Securities at London—Closing Quotations at Regular Board—Movement of Coin and Bullion at New York—Course of Gold at New York—Foreign Exchange.

The chief characteristic of June has been an unusual inactivity of trade. This condition of things is partially due to the unusual lateness of the summer season, besides being in the nature of a reaction from the extraordinary stringency of money during March and April. The position of the banks necessitated at that period the withdrawal of mercantile and industrial advances, which naturally, for a period, produced a curtailment of operations and a depression of confidence, the effects of which we are now experiencing. At the same time, business is perhaps more than at any former time feeling the results of taxation in a general economizing of expenditures.

As usual at periods of commercial stagnation, there has been an extraordinary ease in the loan market. Although, at the commencement of the month, there was an increase of several millions of currency in the Treasury, yet there has been a steady flow of the legal tender circulation into the banks, while the mercantile deposits have very materially increased. Although the rate of interest on demand loans has ranged at 3@4 per cent, and was for a day or two even 1 per cent below that rate, yet the banks have found it necessary, for the employment of their large balances, to buy, to an unusual extent, government securities. The following statement will show the present condition of the banks compared with their position at the beginning of June and at the current date in 1867 :

	June 27, 1863.	May 30, 1868.	June 29, '67.
Loans and discounts.	\$276,504,000	\$268,117,000	\$242,517,000
Specie.	7,753,000	17,861,000	7,769,000
Circulation.	34,048,000	34,145,000	33,542,000
Deposits.	214,302,000	204,746,000	186,213,000
Legal Tenders.	73,853,000	65,633,000	70,174,000

The following are the rates of Loans and Discounts for the month of May :

RATES OF LOANS AND DISCOUNTS.

	June 5.	June 12.	June 19.	June 26.
Call loans.	3 @ 5	3 @ 4	3 @ 4	3 @ 4
Loans on Bonds and Mortgage.	— @ 7	— @ 7	— @ 7	— @ 7
A 1, endorsed bills, 2 mos.	5 @ 6	5 @ 6	4½ @ 5	5 @ 6
Good endorsed bills, 3 & 4 mos.	5½ @ 7	5½ @ 7	5 @ 7	6 @ 6
“ “ single names.	6 @ 8	6 @ 8	6 @ 8	6 @ 8
Lower grades.	— @ —	— @ —	— @ —	— @ —

This extraordinary ease in money, though favorable to special activity in stock speculation, has not been productive of that result. On the contrary, there has been an unusual dullness in stock operations. This fact is the more remarkable, considering that the earnings of the railroads have exhibited a large increase, and that wealthy cliques have for some time been carrying very heavy amounts of stocks in anticipation of an active "campaign" during the Summer ease in money. As will be seen from a subjoined statement, the total sales of railroad stocks at both stock boards in June were only 973,000 shares, against 1,554,000 shares during the same month of last year. Strong efforts have been made by the combinations to encourage speculative transactions, and special inducements have been offered in the way of liberal stock dividends; but the speculative habits of Wall street have refused to respond, while the class of merchants who are apt at this season to employ idle balances in a "turn" at stocks, have scarcely been seen in the street. This singular avoidance of speculation is, to some extent, due to its being understood that stocks were generally in the hands of cliques, desirous of unloading upon the "street;" but a more influential cause appears to have been a feeling of distrust of railroad stocks, engendered by the recent exposures in the courts of corrupt management, and by the daily accumulating evidence that the roads are managed, to a large extent, with a view to the speculative convenience of directors. Moreover, the conviction appears to be gaining ground, that the intrinsic value of railroad stocks has not improved, during late years, at all in proportion to the advance in their market price. The following statement shows the sales of the several classes of stocks at the open board, and the New York Stock Exchange in June, 1868 and 1867.

Classes.	1867.	1868.	Increase.	'Dec.
Bank shares ..	3,584	1,659	1,925
Railroad ..	1,554,112	973,064	581,048
Coal ..	9,522	2,242	7,280
Mining ..	36,208	30,554	5,654
Improv't ..	31,535	16,775	14,760
Telegraph ..	53,172	24,773	28,399
Steamship ..	76,656	82,726	6,070
Expr'ss &c ..	57,941	51,321	6,620
Total—June ..	1,822,730	1,183,114	639,640
" —since January 1 ..	11,339,859	10,317,619	1,022,216

But while speculation has avoided railroad shares, it has been more active than at any previous period in Government securities. The near prospect of the completion of the funding process and of the consolidation of the debt into a permanent form, have produced a favorable effect upon the Government credit; while the maturing of unusually heavy interest disbursements at the Treasury in July, and the falling due of the loan of 1848 on July 1, have induced the expectation of a large demand for bonds in July. The consequence has been a very active speculation by both dealers and outside operators, advancing prices to unprecedented figures. While, therefore, there has been a decrease upon June, 1867, of 35 per cent on the board sales of railroad stocks, the transactions in Government securities have amounted to \$32,457,000 against \$15,137,000 in 1867, an increase of 115 per cent, as shown in the following statement—

BONDS SOLD AT THE N. Y. STOCK EXCHANGE BOARD.				
Classes.	1867.	1868.	Inc.	Dec.
U. S. bonds ..	\$14,042,750	\$31,234,870	\$17,192,120	\$..
U. S. notes ..	1,095,330	1,226,000	130,650
St'e & city b'ds ..	2,625,950	9,610,500	6,984,550
Company b'ds ..	757,000	1,050,200	293,200
Total—June ..	\$18,521,050	\$43,121,570	\$24,600,520
" —since Jan. 1 ..	88,300,720	165,045,120	76,744,390

The daily closing prices of the principal Government securities at the New York Stock Exchange Board in the month of June, as represented by the latest sale officially reported, are shown in the following statement :

PRICES OF GOVERNMENT SECURITIES AT NEW YORK.

Day of month.	6's, 1881.		6's, (5-20 yrs.) Coupon					5's, 10-40 7-30.	
	Coup.	Reg.	1862.	1864.	1865.	new.	1867.	1868.	yr.s. C'pn. 2d sr.
1	111%	111%	112%	110%	110%	113	113%	106%	109%
2	116%	116%	112%	110%	110%	113%	113%	105%	109%
3	116%	111%	112%	110%	110%	113%	113%	106	109%
4	116%	116%	112%	110%	110%	113%	113%	106	109%
5	116%	112%	112%	110%	110%	113%	113%	106	109%
6	116%	116%	112%	110%	110%	113	113%	106	109%
8	116%	111%	112%	110%	110%	113	113%	106	109%
9	116%	111%	112%	110%	110%	113	113	106	109%
10	116%	111%	112%	110%	110%	113%	112%	106	109%
11	116%	111%	112%	110	110%	113%	112%	105%	109%
12	116%	111%	112%	110%	109%	110	112%	105%	109%
13	116%	111%	112%	110%	110%	113%	113%	106	109%
15	117	117	112%	110%	110%	113%	114	106%	109%
16	117%	117%	112%	110%	111	113%	114	106%	110
17	117%	112%	113	111	111	113%	114	109%	106%
18	117%	117%	113	110%	110%	113%	113%	109%	106%
19	117%	117%	113%	110%	110%	113%	114	109%	106%
20	117%	117%	113%	110%	111%	114	114%	109%	106%
22	117%	117%	113%	111%	111%	114%	114%	109%	106%
23	117%	113%	113%	111%	111%	114%	114%	110%	107%
24	118	113%	113%	111%	111%	114	114%	110	107%
25	117%	113%	113%	110%	111%	113%	114	110	107%
26	117%	113%	113%	111	111%	113%	114	110	107%
27	117%	113%	113%	111	111%	113%	113%	110	107%
29	117%	113%	113%	111	111%	113%	114%	110	107%
30	117%	113%	113%	110%	111%	113%	114	110	107%
First	116%	111%	112%	110%	110%	113	113%	109%	106%
Lowest	116%	111%	112%	109%	110	112%	112%	109%	105%
Highest	118	113%	113%	111%	111%	114%	114%	110%	107%
Range	1%	2%	2%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%	1%
Last	117%	113%	113%	110%	111%	113%	114	110	107%

The closing prices of Five-Twenties at Frankfort in each week ending with Thursday, were as follows :

June 4.	June 11.	June 18.	June 25.	Month.
77%	77%	77%	77%	77% @ 77%

The closing prices of Consols for money and certain American securities (viz. U. S. 6's 5-20's 1862, Illinois Central and Erie shares) at London, on each day of the month of June are shown in the following statement :

COURSE OF CONSOLS AND AMERICAN SECURITIES AT LONDON.

Date.	Cons for mon.	Am. securities. U. S. Ill. C. Erie sh's.	Date.	Cons for mon.	Am. securities. U. S. Ill. C. Erie sh's.
Monday	1	(Holi day.)	Monday	23	95 73% 101 45%
Tues	2	96% 72% 97% 46%	Tuesday	29	94% 73% 101% 45%
Wedne	3	96% 72% 97% 45%	Wednesday	24	91% 73% 101% 45%
Thurs	4	96% 72% 97% 45%	Thursday	25	94% 73% 101% 45%
Friday	5	95 73% 97% 45%	Friday	26	94% 73% 101% 45%
Sat'day	6	95% 73% 98% 45%	Saturday	27	94% 73% 101% 46%
Monday	8	95% 73% 100% 46%	Monday	29	94% 73% 101% 46%
Tuesd y	9	95% 73% 100% 46%	Tuesday	30	94% 73% 101% 45%
Wedn y	10	95% 73% 101% 46%			
Thursday	11	95% 73% 100% 46	Lowest	97%	72% 97% 45%
Friday	12	95% 73% 100% 46	Highest	96%	73% 101% 46%
Sat'day	13	95 72% 100% 46	Range	1%	1 4%
Monday	15	94% 73% 100% 46			
Tus'day	16	94% 73% 100 46	Low } since Jan. 1	91%	70% 84% 41%
Wednesday	17	94% 73 99% 45%	Hig }	96%	73% 101% 50%
Thursday	18	95 73% 99% 45%	Rng }	4%	3% 16% 8%
Friday	19	95 73% 100% 45%	Last }	94%	73% 101% 45%
Saturday	20	(Holi day.)			

The following are the closing quotations at the regular board June 5, compared with those of the five preceding weeks :

	May 22.	May 29.	June 5.	June 12.	June 19.	June 26
Cumberland Coal	86	84½	84
Quicksilver	30½	29½	26½	26½	25½	24½
Canton Co.	50	51½	51	50	49½
Mariposa pref.	9	7½	9½	8½
New York Central.	129	133½	132½	134½	133½	134½
Erie	68½	72½	69½	70	69½	69½
Hudson River	135	143½	141½	141½	140	140
Reading	93	94½	94	96½	100½	104½
Michigan Southern	87½	88	89½	89½	90½	92½
Michigan Central	119½	120
Cleveland and Pittsburg	82½	88½	86½	87½	89½	90½
Cleveland and Toledo	107½	109½	108½	107½	107½	103½
Northwestern	66½	68½	68½	69½	x665	69½
" preferred	77½	79½	81½	81½	xd77½	79½
Rock Island	95½	97½	102	103½	105½	105½
Fort Wayne	109½	115½	111	111½	111½	112½
Illinois Central	147½	148½	150	154½	156
Ohio and Mississippi	80½	81½	29½	29½	30½

The following table will show the opening, highest, lowest and closing prices of all the railway and miscellaneous securities quoted at the New York Stock Exchange during the months of May and June, 1868 :

Railroad Stocks—	May				June			
	Open.	High.	Low.	Clos'g	Open.	High.	Low.	Clos.
Alton & Terre Haut	45	49½	43	48	48	48	43	48
do do pref.	73	73½	64	70½	68½	68½	67	67½
Boston, Hartford & Erie	15	15½	15	15	15½	15½	15½	15½
Buflalo N. Y. & Erie	128	128	127½	127½	129	123	129	128
Chicago & Alton	129	125½	128	128½	130	136	130	126
do do pref.	129	125½	128	128½	130	136	130	126
Chicago, Burl. & Quincy	149	150	149	150½	151	154	151	154
do & Gt. Eastern	63	63	68½	72	65½	67½
do & Northwestern	70	70	80	84½	77½	77½
do do pref.	75½	80½	75	79½	80	84½	77½	77½
do & Rock Island	84½	98½	93½	97½	97	105½	96½	103½
Cleve. Col., Cin. & Ind.	91½	92	90½	90½
do Painesv. & Ashta.	102½	108½	103	108	106	107	100½	100½
do & Pittsburg	82½	89	83½	88	88½	91½	81½	89
do & Toledo	108½	110½	105½	109	109½	110½	103½	103½
Del. Lack & Western	118½	125	118½	125½	124½	124½	123	123
do do scrip	117	117	117	117
Dubuque & Sioux city	73	78	73
Erie	71½	72½	68½	70	68½	71½	68	68½
do do pref.	74	77	74	76	75½	76	75	75
Harlem	127	127	122	122
Hannibal & St. Joseph	80	83	78	80	80½	87	80½	85½
do do pref.	84½	87	83½	87½	86	91	86	87
Hudson River	136½	144	136	142	141½	142½	138	140½
Illinois Central	146½	148½	145½	148	149	158	149	157½
Ind. & Cincinnati	53	53	50	50
do do 2d pref.	27	29½	27	28½	28½	29	28½	28½
Michigan Central	116	121	118	120	120	121½	117½	118
do do S. & N. Ind.	90½	91½	82½	88½	89	93½	89½	92
Mil. & P. du Ch'n, 1st pr.	100	104	100	104	103	105	103	105
do do 2d pr.	91½	97	91½	97	98	98	98	98
Milwaukee & St. Paul	64½	67½	62	67	66½	67	62½	65½
do do pref.	76	78½	74½	77½	78	79½	76½	78
Morris & Essex	65	65	65	65	65	65	65	65
New Jersey	133	133	133	133
do Central	116	126	116	119½	119½	120	119½	124½
New York Central	129½	134	137½	133½	134	136½	132½	134
do do N. Haven	150	159	150	151	151	151½	145	145
Norwich & Worcester	90	92	90	92
Ohio & Mississipp.	81½	81½	29½	30½	30½	31½	29	29½
do do pref.	78	80	78	80	79½	79½	79	79
Panama	315	330½	315	330½	329½	330	329½	330
Pittsb., Ft. W. & Chic.	104	116	104	116	116	116½	109½	109½
Reading	90	96½	90	95	95½	106½	93½	101
Rensselaer & Saratoga	86½	89½	86½	89½	90	95½	90	95½
Rome & Watertown	118	118	118	118
Toledo, Wab. & Western	51½	52	49	51½	51½	51½	46	48½
do do do pref.	69	69	69	69	69	69	69	69

Miscellaneous—									
American Coal	43	43	43	43
Ashburton do	3	3½	2	3
Central do	50	50	50	50	50	50
Cumberland Coal	33	35½	33	35½	35½	35½	33½	33½	33
Del. & Hud. Canal Coal	178	165	156½	164	163½	163½	133	134½	134
Pacific Mail	91½	97	90½	95	95	103½	95	99½	99½
Atlantic do	35	35	31½	34	30	30	30	30	30
Union Navigation	20	26	20	24½	26½	26½	23½	26½	26½
Boston Water Power	21½	21½	20½	20½	20½	23	17½	19	19
Canton	51	52	49	51½	51½	51½	49	50	50
Cary Improvement	8½	8½	8½	8½
Brunswick City	4	9	4	8½	8½	8½
Mariposa	5	6	5	5	5	5	3	4	4
do pref	10	11½	9½	9½	8½	9½	6½	8½	8½
Quicksilver	27½	32½	27½	29	29½	29½	23½	23½	23½
Citizen's Gas	144	144	144	144
West. Union Telegraph	37½	38½	36½	38½	38½	38½	33½	34½	34½
Bankers & Brokers Ass.	113	113	109½	112½	111	114½	106	106	106
Union Trust	120	120	120	120
Express—									
American	60	61	53	53	53	54½	42½	46½	46½
Adams	61	63	56½	56½	56½	58	51½	52½	52½
United States	60½	61½	55½	56	56	56	45	48	48
Merchant's Union	31½	31½	28	28½	28	29	24	25½	25½
Wells, Fargo & Co.	26½	27	22	25½	25½	28	23½	26½	26½

In most respects the specie movement has run closely parallel with that of June, 1867. The month opened with \$3,244,000 more gold in the banks than last year, and the receipts from California were \$1,364,511 larger than then, while the imports of specie and the coin interest payments of the month were together \$686,000 higher, making a total increase in supply of \$5,294,000; but as the exports of specie show an increase of \$4,615,000, and the customs payments a gain of \$166,000, it results that the specie in the banks at the close of the month is about the same as a year ago.

The following formula furnishes the details of the general movement of coin and bullion at this port for the month of June, 1867 and 1868, comparatively:

GENERAL MOVEMENT OF COIN AND BULLION AT NEW YORK.

	1867.	1868.	Increase.	Decrease
In banks, near first	\$14,617,060	\$17,861,088	\$3,244,028	\$.....
Receipts from California	2,568,773	3,933,284	1,364,511
Imports of coin and bullion	497,477	640,923	143,446
Coin interest paid	1,337,082	1,779,749	542,667
Total reported supply	\$18,920,292	\$24,215,044	\$5,294,652	\$.....
Exports of coin and bullion	\$6,348,529	\$10,963,582	\$4,615,053	\$.....
Customs duties	8,040,114	8,206,096	165,982
Total withdrawn	\$14,388,643	\$19,169,678	\$4,781,035	\$.....
Excess of reported supply	\$4,531,749	\$5,045,366	\$.....	\$293,454
Specie in banks at end	7,768,996	7,753,300	15,696
Derived from unreported sources	\$3,237,247	\$2,707,934	\$.....	\$529,313

It is not easy to find any special reason for the fact that while the result of the movement so closely resembles that of last year, yet the price has ranged about 3 points higher. It is generally conceded that the Government credit stands higher now than a year ago, of which the advance in bonds is an evidence; yet the gold premium in no sense reflects this improvement. The largeness of the exports of gold may have had some influence in causing this variation from the premium of a year ago; but from the above statement it will be noticed that this enlarged export movement is set off by about an equal gain in supply. The following exhibits the fluctuations of the New York gold market in the month of June, 1868.

COURSE OF GOLD AT NEW YORK.

Date.	Open'g	Lowest	High'st	Closing	Date.	Open'g	Lowest	High'st	Closing
Monday.....	1 139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	Monday	22 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Tuesday.....	2 139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	Tuesday	23 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Wednesday.....	3 140	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	Wednesday	24 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Thursday.....	4 140	140	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	Thursday.....	25 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Friday.....	5 140	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	Friday.....	26 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Saturday.....	6 139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	Saturday.....	27 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Monday.....	8 139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	Monday.....	29 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Tuesday.....	9 139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	Tuesday.....	30 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Wednesday.....	10 139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	June, 1868.....	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	141 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$
Thursday.....	11 139 $\frac{3}{4}$	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	140	" 1867.....	138 $\frac{3}{4}$	138 $\frac{3}{4}$	138 $\frac{3}{4}$	138 $\frac{3}{4}$
Friday.....	12 140	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	" 1866.....	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	137 $\frac{3}{4}$	137 $\frac{3}{4}$	153 $\frac{3}{4}$
Saturday.....	13 140	139 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	140	" 1865.....	138	135 $\frac{3}{4}$	147 $\frac{3}{4}$	141
Monday.....	15 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	" 1864.....	194	193	250	147 $\frac{3}{4}$
Tuesday.....	16 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	" 1863.....	146 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	148 $\frac{3}{4}$	147 $\frac{3}{4}$
Wednesday.....	17 141 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	141 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	" 1862.....	103 $\frac{3}{4}$	103 $\frac{3}{4}$	109 $\frac{3}{4}$	109
Thursday.....	18 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	See Jan 1, 1868	133 $\frac{3}{4}$	133 $\frac{3}{4}$	144	130 $\frac{3}{4}$
Friday.....	19 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$					
Saturday.....	20 140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$	140 $\frac{3}{4}$					

Foreign exchange has been kept firm at specie shipping rates, as usual at this period of the year, when the supply of commercial bills proves inadequate to cover the remittances of importers.

The following exhibits the quotations at New York for bankers' 60 days bills on the principal European markets daily in the month of June, 1868 :

COURSE OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE (60 DAYS) AT NEW YORK.

Days.	London, cents for 54 piece.	Paris, centimes for dollar.	Amsterdam, florin.	Bremen, rix dollar.	Hamburg, M. banco.	Berlin, cents for thaler.
1.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
2.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
3.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
4.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
5.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
6.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
7.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
8.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
9.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
10.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
11.....	110 $\frac{1}{2}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
12.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
13.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
14.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
15.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
16.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
17.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
18.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
19.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
20.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
21.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
22.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
23.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
24.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
25.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
26.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
27.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
28.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
29.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
30.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
June, 1868.....	110 @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	513 $\frac{3}{4}$ @512 $\frac{3}{4}$	41 $\frac{1}{2}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	79 $\frac{3}{4}$ @80	36 $\frac{3}{4}$ @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	71 $\frac{3}{4}$ @72
" 1867.....	109 $\frac{3}{4}$ @110 $\frac{1}{2}$	518 $\frac{3}{4}$ @511 $\frac{3}{4}$	40 $\frac{3}{4}$ @41 $\frac{3}{4}$	78 $\frac{3}{4}$ @79 $\frac{3}{4}$	36 @36 $\frac{3}{4}$	72 @72 $\frac{3}{4}$

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY, AND FINANCE.

Returns of the New York, Philadelphia and Boston Banks.

Below we give the returns of the Banks of the three cities since Jan. 1 :

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	L. Tend's.	Ag. clear'gs.
January 4.....	\$243,741,297	\$12,724,614	\$34,184,391	\$187,070,786	\$62,111,201	\$483,266,304
January 11.....	253,170,723	19,222,856	34,094,137	194,835,525	64,753,116	558,884,525
January 18.....	256,033,938	23,191,867	34,071,006	205,883,143	66,155,241	619,797,369
January 25.....	258,392,101	25,106,800	34,022,762	210,092,084	67,154,161	528,503,232
February 1.....	266,415,613	23,955,320	44,062,521	213,330,524	65,197,133	637,449,923

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal Tend's.	Ag. clear'gs.
February 8...	270,555,356	22,823,372	34,006,834	217,844,548	58,846,259	597,242,595
February 15...	271,015,970	24,192,955	34,042,296	216,759,328	65,471,762	550,521,185
February 21...	267,763,643	22,519,987	34,100,023	209,099,351	60,968,920	452,241,592
February 29...	267,240,678	22,091,442	34,076,323	208,651,878	58,553,607	705,109,784
March 7.....	269,156,636	20,714,249	34,159,957	207,737,080	57,017,044	619,319,598
March 14.....	266,816,034	19,744,701	34,213,331	201,183,470	54,768,866	691,377,641
March 21.....	261,426,900	17,944,308	34,312,571	191,191,526	52,261,086	649,482,341
March 28.....	257,378,247	17,329,267	34,199,808	186,528,128	52,123,078	557,848,908
April 4.....	254,287,891	17,072,299	34,227,100	180,956,846	51,709,706	567,789,138
April 11.....	252,936,725	16,342,150	34,194,272	179,551,880	51,982,000	593,371,451
April 18.....	254,817,936	16,779,542	34,218,581	181,832,523	50,833,660	623,713,923
April 25.....	252,314,617	14,943,547	34,227,624	180,307,489	53,866,757	628,784,114
May 2.....	257,623,672	16,166,373	34,114,843	191,206,125	57,863,599	588,717,822
May 9.....	265,755,883	21,886,910	34,205,409	199,276,568	57,541,827	507,085,567
May 16.....	267,724,783	20,939,142	34,193,249	201,213,205	57,613,095	480,186,908
May 23.....	268,181,279	20,479,947	34,183,083	202,507,550	62,233,002	602,735,142
May 30.....	269,117,490	17,861,088	34,145,606	204,746,964	65,623,964	498,118,248
June 6.....	273,792,267	14,528,631	34,188,159	209,089,655	68,322,023	640,663,329
June 13.....	275,142,024	11,193,631	34,166,846	210,670,765	69,202,840	530,328,197
June 20.....	274,117,668	9,124,830	34,119,120	211,484,387	72,567,552	555,983,817
June 27.....	276,504,36	7,753,900	34,048,721	214,202,207	73,883,303	516,726,075

PHILADELPHIA BANK RETURNS.

Date.	Legal Tenders.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
January 4.....	\$6,782,432	\$52,000,204	\$255,912	10,639,000	\$6,621,274
January 11.....	16,097,995	52,593,707	400,615	10,639,096	37,131,830
January 18.....	16,827,423	53,013,196	320,973	10,641,752	37,157,089
January 25.....	16,826,937	52,325,599	279,399	10,645,226	37,312,540
February 1.....	17,064,184	52,604,916	248,473	10,638,927	37,922,257
February 8.....	17,063,716	52,672,443	287,878	10,635,926	37,296,673
February 15.....	16,929,944	52,532,946	293,157	10,663,328	37,010,520
February 22.....	17,573,149	52,423,166	204,929	10,632,495	36,453,464
February 29.....	17,877,877	52,459,757	211,365	10,634,484	35,798,314
March 7.....	17,157,954	53,081,665	232,189	10,633,713	34,826,811
March 14.....	16,662,299	53,367,611	251,051	10,631,399	34,523,550
March 21.....	15,664,946	53,677,237	229,518	10,613,613	33,836,966
March 28.....	14,348,391	53,450,878	192,858	10,643,406	32,428,390
April 4.....	13,208,625	52,209,234	215,835	10,642,670	31,278,119
April 11.....	14,194,385	52,256,949	250,240	10,640,932	32,255,671
April 20.....	14,493,287	52,084,780	222,229	10,640,479	33,950,952
April 27.....	14,951,106	52,512,603	204,690	10,640,312	34,767,500
May 4.....	14,990,832	53,333,740	314,266	10,631,044	35,109,927
May 11.....	15,166,017	53,771,794	397,778	10,629,005	35,017,596
May 18.....	15,381,545	53,494,583	302,525	10,632,665	36,036,063
May 25.....	15,823,099	53,663,225	280,302	10,661,276	36,000,297
June 1.....	16,184,865	53,562,449	239,371	10,626,937	36,574,457
June 8.....	16,078,808	53,491,264	226,581	10,630,945	42,910,499
June 15.....	15,837,117	53,122,521	175,203	10,630,979	43,016,968
June 22.....	15,993,145	53,381,820	182,711	10,631,220	43,243,562
June 29.....	16,414,877	53,072,878	198,563	10,630,307	43,936,629

BOSTON BANK RETURNS.

(Capital Jan. 1, 1866, \$41,900,000.)

Date.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal		Circulation	
			Tenders.	Deposits.	National.	State.
January 3.....	\$34,960,249	\$1,466,246	\$15,543,169	\$40,856,022	\$24,636,559	\$228,720
January 13.....	97,800,239	1,276,987	15,560,965	41,406,320	24,757,965	227,953
January 20.....	97,433,463	926,942	15,832,769	41,904,161	24,700,001	217,372
January 27.....	97,433,435	841,196	16,349,637	43,991,170	14,564,906	226,288
February 3.....	96,895,260	777,627	16,738,229	42,891,128	24,628,103	221,600
February 10.....	97,973,916	652,039	16,497,643	42,752,067	24,850,926	221,700
February 17.....	98,218,828	605,740	16,561,401	41,502,550	24,850,055	220,452
February 24.....	97,469,436	616,953	16,309,501	40,387,614	24,686,212	216,490
March 2.....	100,243,692	633,832	16,304,846	40,954,936	24,876,089	215,214
March 9.....	101,559,261	867,174	15,556,696	39,770,418	24,957,700	210,162
March 16.....	101,409,611	918,485	14,582,342	39,276,514	25,062,415	197,720
March 23.....	100,109,595	798,606	13,712,560	37,022,546	25,094,253	197,289
March 30.....	99,132,268	685,034	13,736,032	36,184,640	24,983,417	197,079
April 6.....	97,020,925	731,540	13,004,924	36,008,157	25,175,194	198,023
April 13.....	97,850,230	873,487	12,522,035	36,422,929	24,213,014	167,013
April 20.....	98,906,805	805,486	11,905,603	36,417,890	24,231,058	166,962
April 27.....	98,002,343	577,63	12,208,545	36,259,946	25,231,978	164,331
May 4.....	97,624,197	815,469	12,656,190	37,635,406	25,203,234	160,385
May 11.....	97,332,283	1,123,668	11,962,363	37,368,776	25,225,173	145,248
May 18.....	96,938,524	1,186,881	12,199,422	37,844,742	25,234,465	160,241
May 25.....	97,041,720	1,018,809	12,848,141	38,398,141	25,210,660	160,151
June 1.....	97,458,997	766,553	14,188,806	39,411,569	25,204,939	159,590
June 8.....	98,116,632	631,149	14,268,900	41,470,376	25,194,114	159,313
June 15.....	99,513,988	561,990	14,373,575	41,738,706	25,190,565	159,150
June 22.....	99,289,631	476,433	14,564,614	42,553,871	25,197,317	158,908
June 29.....	99,477,074	426,699	15,195,550	42,506,316	25,182,920	158,812